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The Federal Policy in Relation to the Nevada Indian.

By

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THE FEDERAL POLICY IN RELATION TO THE NEVADA INDIANS.

INTRODUCTION

When Nevada came under the domination of the United States Government in 1848 it was inhabited by Indians of two linguistic families; the Washon and the Shoshonean.[1]

The former were few in number. In 1859 they were placed at nine hundred but steadily decreased until recent years. They occupied the country from the range south of Honey Lake, through Long Valley, Sierra Valley and along the shores of Lake Tahoe. Eastward they claimed the country on the Truckee River to the Meadows, and on the Carson River to the first canyon below the present site of Carson City. At an earlier date they ranged further east but were driven back toward the mountains by the Western Piautes.[2] They were accused of many depredations in the early days,[3] but as none occurred in localities where there were no white criminals it is doubtful if

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[1] Kroeber in University of California Publication in American Archeology and Ethnology, 4, gives a description of the Washo family, while Waterman in the same publication, 10, describes the main characteristics of the Shochonean language.

[2] Hodge, Handbook of American Indians, 2, p. 920.

[3] Senate Executive Documents, 32 Cong., 2 sess., 1, 1852-53 441 Serial No. 658.

they were often guilty. They were said to have been very wretched; living on grass roots, insects, and small animals, with only the rudest habitations to protect them from the elements.[4] As they used bows and arrows and their country was well stocked with game it is probable that the above statement is exaggerated. Their features bear the Mongolian stamp to a greater extent than do the faces of other Nevada Indians.

The Shoshonean family occupied the remaining portion of Nevada. They were divided into many tribes and bands. The tribe now called Shoshone, in 1849 ranged over the northeastern section from directly west of Salt Lake to the Sink of the Humboldt River. They numbered several thousand.[5] They became hostile as soon as the emigrants began to pass through their country. They lived on game, fish, and grasseed. In 1859 there were seven bands of Shoshones in the Humboldt River country. These often subdivided into smaller bands to comb the country of every living thing that could sustain life. Each band was under the control of a chief or sub-chief or of both according to the number of Indians.[6]

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[4] Simpson, Report of an Expedition Across the Great Basin, 1859, 94.

[5] Sen. Ex. Doc., 31 Cong., 1 sess. 11, 1849-50, 1002-1003. Ser. No. 550.

[6] Ibid., 1, 731. Ser. No. 1023.

A tribe of Bannock Indians lived in the same section with the Shoshones. They numbered about five hundred.[7] They were very friendly with the neighboring tribe and the two were extensively intermarried. They did not speak the same language as the Oregon Bannock tribe but a tongue similar to that spoken by the Paiutes of western Nevada.[8]

In eastern Nevada south of the Shoshones lived the Goshute a tribe that was evidently a mixture of Utes and Shoshones. The tribe was small and only gained prominence from living clos to the emigrant trails. They were very wretched, half starved naked and almost unprotected in the witner. They lived on roots, rabbits, insects or anything that could sustain life, while their habitations were mere piles of brush to act as wind breaks.[10]

East of the Washo territory was occupied by a tribe known as the Paiutes. Their range extended from Walker Lake on the south to the Blackstone Desert on the north, and from the home of the Washo in the west to the Humboldt Sink in the east. In

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[7] Sen. Ex. Doc., 36 Cong., 1 sess., 1, 731, Ser.No. 1023.

[8] Hodge, Handbook of American Indians, 1, 129, 932.

[9] House Miscellaneous Documents, 43 Cong., 1 Sess., 11, No.86, Ser. No. 1618.

[10] Simpson, Report of an Expedition Across the Great Basin, 1859, 52-53.

1859 there were twelve bands of these Indians numbering about five thousand and under their most famous chief, Winnemucca.[11] They were not as hostile as the Shoshones, and early learned to work for the whites as herders, teamsters and ranch-hands. They seem to have been better provided with food than the Washos. They caught a large amount of fish and harvested quantities of fine nuts and grass seed to store away for winter.[12]

The southeast was inhabited by Ute bands called Pieds. They were very destitute, naked and half starved. The Ute bands to the east kept them in constant fear, attacking them and stealing their women and children to sell to the Navajos for slaves.

There were probably not more than fifteen thousand Indians in Nevada at the time of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. They lived along the water courses and were unable to remain away from them for any length of time owing to physiography of the country.

With the exception of the extreme northeast and southeast, Nevada lies wholly within the Great Basin. The waters of the northeast flow into the Columbia and thus into the Pacific, while the southeast is drained by tributaries of the Colorado.

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[11] Sen. Ex. Doc. 36 Cong., 1 sess., 1, 1859-60, 741, Ser. No. 1023.

[12] Report of Commissioner of Indian Affairs, accompanying Annual Report of the Secretary of the Interior, 1856, 233-234.

All the rivers are small, the Humboldt being the largest. It rises in the northeastern section of the State and flowing three hundred miles southwest disappears in the Sink of the Humboldt. The Reese River in the east and the Truckee, Carson, and Walker rivers in the west are the remaining important streams of the State. The Truckee River, the outlet of Lake Tahoe, flows into the State and empties into Pyramid Lake. The Carson and Walker rivers also drain the eastern slope of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, the one emptying into Carson Sink, the other into Walker Lake.

The lakes are also few in number. Pyramid is the largest, being thirty-four miles long by fourteen wide. The water is too salty for drinking purposes but produces large quantities of fresh-water fish. Walker Lake has no outlet also, but its water is much saltier than Pyramid Lake so that nothing can live in it. Besides these two several smaller lakes are found within the State. There are several "sinks" where streams spread out and disappear. These are shallow sloughs and are filled with tules and other water plants, therefore furnish homes for many water fowls. The small streams in many cases flow into shallow sloughs and form "mud lakes" by being constantly stirred by incessant winds. These dry up in the summer and then present surfaces as hard as rock or dazzling white with alkali.

The State has a high elevation. Beginning in the south at an elevation of seven hundred feet it steadily rises until the northern boundry is reached at an elevation of six thousand feet. Likewise there is a steady lift from the west where the average elevation is four thousand feet until the eastern line is passed. Mount Wheeler, close to the eastern boundary is thirteen thousand fifty eight feet high. Numerous mountain ranges run north and south throughout the State, having peaks from eight to twelve thousand feet high. The mean elevation of the country is five thousand five hundred feet.

Nevada lying between the 35th and 42nd degrees of latitude, ranging an elevation of seven hundred feet and thirteen thousand feet and being inland, naturally has a great variation of temperature. In the north the thermometer ranges between 72° F. and -40° F. in the winter, while in the summer it varies between 20° F. and 108° F. In the south the winter temperature is from 69° F. to -6° F. while the summer heat is between 32° F. and 112° F. The extremes are not felt as they would be in a more humid climate. Fog is rare and the average precipitation is only seven miles.

The flora of the State would naturally be sparce under these conditions. On the mountains to the west conifers are found, of which the pine furnishes an important staple of the diatary of the Indians. Along the permanent water courses willows and cottenwood trees grow, while the dry plains and

hillsides are covered with sage brush. In the south this gives way to the thorn bush, joshue tree, and other cacti. In the north are lupines, grasses, and many herbs that furnish good forage.

The fauna of the State is represented in the south by lizards, snakes, horned toads, etc., while in central and northern Nevada, mountain sheep, antelopes, deer, rabbits, coyotes, badgers, rats, snakes and the like are found. The birds that furnished food for the Indians were swans, geese, ducks, curlews, snipes, plovers, pelicans, doves, quail, sagehens, grouse, etc. The important food insects were grasshoppers, locusts, crickets and ants. Some of the streams furnished quantities of fish.[13]

At best it was a poor home for the natives who were compelled to live along the water courses, and along these courses the white traveled and settled and the Indian were either soon driven to the verge of starvation or bagan to adopt the ways of the white man.

When the United States acquired the territory that later became the state of Nevada its Indian policy had taken form

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13 Nevada and Her Resources, Compiled, State Immigration Bureau; Encyclopaedia Britiannica, Vol. XIX, 450-452.

along certain definite lines. Before 1492 Europeans had been in contact with semi-barbarous and pagan races, who by their military skill had forced the Christians to recognize their national institutions. So that on the discovery of the Western Hemisphere it was natural that the Indian tribes should be recognized as having certain rights akin to independent nations.

George III in his Proclamation of October 7, 1763, laid down several principals that influenced the Indian policy for many years. All of these recognized the national character of the tribes. The first was that the Indian tribes had a right to the land, gained by prior occupancy. This recognition of prior occupancy was international and the king in applying it to the tribes was acknowledging the national polity of their organizations. Another principal that he laid down was that the right to purchase Indian lands was vested solely in the government. In other words, the right to acquire land from the Indians was the same as to acquire territory from France, Spain or other independent nations. Still another one was that the government had sole power to regulate commerce with, and to license traders to the Indians. This was another recognition of the independent character of the natives.[14]

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[14] Journal, Continental Congress, II, 177-178.

On the outbreak of the Revolution the Continental Congress continued this policy of recognizing the independent status of the Indians. July 13, 1775 the committee appointed to prepare a speech to the Six Nations reported the following: "A Speech to the Six Confederate Nations ... from the Twelve United Colonies, convened in Council at Philadelphia. Brothers Sachems, and Warriors; We, the Delegates from the Twelve United Provances ... send you this talk .. our Indian brothers...."[14] In a treaty with the Deleware tribe at Fort Pitt, September 17, 1778 like phraseology was used: "Article of agreement and Confederation, made and entered into, by Andrew and Thomas Lewis, esquires, Commissioners for, ... the United States of North America, of the one part, and Captain White Eyes, Captain John Kill Buck, Junior, and Captain Pipe, deputies and chief men of the Delaware nation, of the other part."[15] In the sixth article of the same treaty the following: "And it is further agreed on.. to invite any other tribes who have been friends to the interests of the United States, to join the present Confederation, and to form a state where of the Delaware nation shall be the head and have a representation in Congress..."[16] January

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[14] Journal, Continental Congress, II, 177-178.

[15] Indian Treaties, 1-3.

[16] Ibid.

25, 1785 a treaty was made with the Wyandots, Delawares, Chippewas, and Ottowas in which the United States renounced all jurisdiction over its citizens settling on the lands ceded to the above tribes. It states: "such person shall forfeit the protection of the United States and the Indians may punish him as they please."[17] This same idea prevailed in all the treaties of the time.[18]

To complicate matters still more the status of the Indian in his relation to the state in which he resided was soon a disputed question. This undertainity was brought to a climax in the difficulty between Georgia and the Cherokees. Chief Justice Marshall in announcing the decision stated: "The Cherokee nation is not a foreign state, in the sense in which the term 'foreign state' is used in the Constitution of the United States... The Cherokees are a state ... they may more correctly, perhaps, be denominated domestic dependent nations."[19]

As opposed to these is the decision of the Court in the Case of The United States v. Rogers, January, 1846, in which

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[17] Indian Treaties, 41-42.

[18] The Indian treates made from 1775 to 1814 were published in 1816 by order of Congress under the title of Indian Treaties.

[19] Cherokee Nation v. Georgia, 5 Pet. 1.

Chief Justice Taney delivered the opinion containing the following: "and we think it too firmly and clearly established to admit of dispute, that the Indian tribes residing within the territorial limits of the United States are subject to their authority, and where the country occupied by them is not within the limits of one of the states, Congress may by law punish any offense committed there ..."[20]

These decisions show the uncertain status of the Indian. In truth they mark the conflict between the old idea of the independent character of the Indians and the dependent condition of the tribes. It is another phase of the growth of nationalism in the United States.

The administration of Indian affairs early attracted the attention of Congress. July 16, 1775 they passed a resolution proving for the appointment of a committee to examine the papers transmitted from a convention in New York that had discussed the Indian situation. The importance of the Indian question may be judged from the men appointed to be on the committee; Livingston, Patrick Henry, Schuyler, James Wilson and James Duane. The committee was also to report a plan for the maintainance of peace and friendship of the Indians.[21] It was

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[20] United States v. Rogers, 4 Howard, 572.

[21] Journal, Continental Congress, II, 93.

decided to divide the country into three departments, northern, middle, and southern. The northern to include the Six Nations and all north of them, the southern to have the Creeks, Cherokees, Chocktaws and all south of them, while the middle department should control all the rest. The southern department was to have five commissioners and the other two, three each. They were to have power to treat with the tribes of their respective departments in the name of the United States. Money was appropriated for their use. On April 29, 1776, the committee of five appointed the year before was made permanent.[23]

The next change came August 7, 1786. On that day Congress passed an Act dividing the Indian country into two districts with the Ohio River as a division line. A superintendent was appointed for each department to hold office two years. His duty was to enforce all laws of Congress. The superintendent of the northern district had the power to appoint two deputies. The superintendents were to be under the direct control of the Secretary of War to whom they must report at regular intervals.[24]

After the adoption of the Constitution Congress left the administration of the Indians with the War Department.[25] In

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[22] Journal Continental Congress, IV, 317.

[23] Ibid., XI, 127.

[24] Laws, United States, 1789-1815, II, 32.

[25] United States Statutes, 30 Cong., 2 sess., 1847-1849, 8 Ch. 108, 395.

this it remained until the organization of the Interior Department, March 3, 1849, when it was transferred to the new branch.[26] But in the meantime many changes had taken place in the administration of the Indians. April 16, 1818 the president was given power to nominate the superintendents, agents and assistant agents by and with the consent of the Senate.[27]

Oeing to the spread of the frontier and the complexity of the work Congress in 1832 passed a bill creating the office of Commissioner of Indian Affairs. He was to be appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. His duties were, "under the direction of the Secretary of War, and agreeable to such regulations as the President may, from time to time, prescribe, have the direction and management of all Indians affairs, and of all matters arising out of Indian relations."[28] Then to organize the department still better, on the 30th of June, 1834 Congress passed an act to provide for the creation of new superintendencies and agencies as conditions required, to better define the duties of the different officials, and to authorize the President to appoint them.[29] This Act was for

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[26] Indian Treaties, 393.

[27] United States Statutes, 22 Cong., 1832-33, 151.

[28] Laws of the United States, 23 Cong., 1 sess., 1833-34, 118-119.

[29] Ibid., Page 13, No.21.

many years the organic law of the Indian Department and many of its provisions remained in force for two generations.

Trade with the Indians was always an important feature of our relations with them during the early history of the United States. The committee appointed June 16, 1775[30] was required to investigate the trade relation with the tribes and in its report of July 12 trade came in for its share. Following the old plan of government control it was illegal to trade with the Indians without a license. At first they were issued by the Secretary of War, then later this duty was assigned to the Commissioner and under officials.[31] However Indians living on reservations surrounded by whites could trade as they wished.[32]

April 18, 1796 a change took place in our trading relations with the Indians. On that date Congress passed a bill providing for government trading houses under the control of the President. He should appoint an agent over each, who must report to the Secretary of Treasury semi-annually. One hundred thousand dollars were appropriated with which to purchase goods. The price was to be regulated so that the capital should

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[30] Laws of the United States, II, 1789-1797, 360-363.

[31] Ibid., 518.

[32] Ibid., IV, 1805-1815, 64.

[33] Ibid., [illegible], 1816-1823, [illegible].

not be delivered.[33] This commerce had so grown by 1806 that Congress created the office of Superintendent of Indian Trade.[34] But there was a great deal of complaint and more illicit trade than before so the trading houses were done away with and the superintendent and agents were authorized to license traders.[35] This plan remained in force from its passage, May 6, 1822, until after the Mexican Cession.

The civilization and Christianization had not been as important in the English as in the Spanish colonies but attemps had been made very early. At the outbreak of the Revolution there were several schools that were making pretense at educating the Indians. Congress, November 23, 1775 ordered the employment of two blacksmiths and an interpreter to reside among the Six Nations.[36] That same year several tribes asked for instructors.[37] In 1780 five thousand dollars was appropriated for Dartmouth College to be used in educating several Indians,[38] and the next year about six hundred fifty

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[33] Sen. Ex. Doc., 17 Cong., 1821-1823, 51.

[34] Journal, Continental Congress, 111, 366.

[35] Sen. Ex. Doc., 48 Cong., 2 sess., 161, Ser. No. 2264.

[36] Journal, Continental Congress, XVI, 162-163.

[37] Abridgments of Debates of Congress, V111, 289.

dollars were given for Indians educated at Princeton. The first treaty with an educational clause was with the Oneida, Tuscarora, and Stockbridge tribes in 1794. The first general appropriation for Indian education was made March 3, 1819. By it ten thousand dollars were to be given annually to religious schools.

A system of reservations had grown up from the theory of Indian ownership of the land but with the shift that they of a right could claim reservations. In his message of January 27, 1825, Monroe proposed moving all the Indians west of the Mississippi. The reservations were set aside by treaty, by executive order, and by act of Congress.

When Captain White Eyes appeared before Congress in 1775 he was promised presents before he left town. This custom was followed from then to late years. Whenever a treaty was to be made there was a general distribution of presents and then often another distribution followed the treaty. Many treaties specified that the Indians of the tribe should receive annuities of goods, money, or domestic animals.

Thus when the future Nevada came under United States rule the Federal Indian policy had taken shape. The status of the Indian was unsettled. The administration of Indian Affairs

was soon to pass under the control of the Interior Department. Trade was by authorized individuals. Religious schools were receiving appropriations from the government. A reservation system had grown up. Annunities had become common, and all was under the control of a Commissioner of Indian Affairs.

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CHAPTER II

IMMIGRATION AND FIRST SETTLEMENTS

When the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed by which the United States gained control of that portion of our country called the Mexican Session, the Federal Government became sponser for a large number of wild Indian tribes. Following close on the signing of the treaty came the news of gold fields and the government was faced with the problem of dealing with the natives encountered by the emigrants.

But these emigrants were not the first whites to come into contact with the Nevada Indians. Friar Garcés, entering from the south in 1776 was probably the first white man to meet the natives of future Nevada.[1] Then, after half a century of quiet, trappers of the Hudson's Bay Company and some independent drifted into the country. Ogden discovered the Humboldt. Jediah S. Smith passed through the territory from west to east. Walker, Sublette, Bidwell, Carson, Beckworth, Frémont, all visited or passed through the land. Walker had trouble with the Shoshones on the Humboldt,

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[1] Bancroft, Hubert Howe, History of Nevada, Colorado and Wyoming, 27.

probably the first Indian difficulty in the state.[1] Fremont gave the first account of Pyramid Lake.[2] So by 1849 the way across Nevada was known and the Indians had some acquaintance with the whites.

Owing to the peculiar character of the physiography of the Great Basin it was necessary for the gold seekers to follow certain well defined trails leading between or along the water courses. But along these streams lived a large per centage of the Indians of the Great Basin. These tribes might have withdrawn to the hills for short periods, but owing to the barrenness of the country they had to return to the water for there was the chief source of food supply. By the time the emigrants had reached the deserts they had run the gauntlet of the hostile Indians of the Plains so that to many of them "the only good Indian was a dead Indian."

The government immediately began to make preparation for the protection of the emigrants and to stop the bad whites' oppression of the Indians.[3] By the act of June 30, 1834 eleven agents could be appointed by the President, so he

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[1] Bancroft, H.H., History of Nevada, Colorado and Wyominh, 27; Davis, Sam, History of Nevada, Vol.1, 20-21.

[2] Second Biennial Report of the Nevada Historical Society, 1909-1910, 106-152.

[3] Angel, Myron, History of Nevada, 146, gives an account of the attacks made on the Indians by Bill Hickman and his party.

moved one from the upper Missouri and placed him in California which then included what is now Nevada and Utah. At the same time he increased the number of sub-agents.[1] But as this was felt to be only temporary, Orlando Brown, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, advised the appointment of at least four agents for the above territory. The same report proposed abolishing the office of ex-officio superintendent held by different governors, and the creation of seven new superintendencies, one of which was to be for California.[2]

August 22, 1849, Indian Agent, John Wilson reported from Salt Lake, California. It is the first official report we have of the Indians east of the Sierras in the territory of the future Nevada. He states, there were three tribes: the Shoshones, the Utahs, and the Parmachs. The Shoshones were of two bands, those owning horses were called Shoshones or Snakes, those too poor to own horses were known as "Shoshocoes." When one of the former became too poor to own a horse he became a Shoshocoe, or a Shoshocoe became a Shoshone on gaining possession of a horse. This may have been a local condition that came under Wilson's attention or it may have originated in

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 31 Cong., 1 sess, II, 1849-50, 951. Ser. No. 550.

[2] Ibid., 954.

the fertile brain of some trapper, it was not true of the tribe as a whole. The Utahs lived south of the Shoshones in a region less traveled and therefore better supplied with game. They were continually at war with the Shoshones on the north and the tribes of New Mexico and Arizona on the south. They had a custom of killing any stranger in their midst on the death of one of their members. Both tribes spoke the Comanche tongue. Of the two the Utahs were more warlike and better provided with the necessities of life. The others were destitute and growing more so each year. A great council of the Indians was called to be held at Salt Lake.[1]

On September 9, 1850 California was admitted into the Union and on the same day the Territory of Utah was formed so as to include Nevada. The same act provided that: "The governor ... shall perform the duties and receive the emoluments of the superintendent of Indian Affairs."[2] An agent was provided for with a salary of fifteen hundred dollars and the Trade and Intercourse laws were extended over the new territory.[3]

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 31 Cong., 1 sess., 11,1849-50, 1002-1004. Ser. No. 550.

[2] United States Statutes, 31 Cong., 1849-1851, ch.51, 453.

[3] Ibid., ch. 20, 586-587.

These acts placed the Indian Affairs of Utah on the same basis as in the other newly acquired territory. Then the thirty-second Congress passed an act authorizing the President to create military reserves in the West,[1] and after a few years he did so as we will see later.

As mentioned above the Utes were more warlike than the Shoshones. As soon as emigrants began to cross their lands and commit depredations against the Indians the tribe rose and sent its hostile bands south into New Mexico and Arizona, east to the plains, north beyond Salt Lake and went into central Nevada. The territory of Utah took prompt action in trying to suppress these uprisings. Owing to the barrenness of the country they were only partially successful, hostile bands of Utes kept haunting the trails until the Federal Government sent an agent to treat with them. By the agreement signed December 30, 1849 the Utes agreed to let the emigrants pass through their land, to cease their raids, return all prisoners and take up agriculture. On the part of the government it was promised that they should receive domestic animals, agricultural implements, and an instructor would be sent them so that they might learn to farm. An annuity of fifteen

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[1] United States Statutes, 32 Cong., 2 sess., 1851-1853, ch. 139, 238.

thousand dollars was promised them and they were to be annexed to the New Mexican Superintendency.[1] Utah was later reinbursed for the cost of its attempting to suppress the Utes.[2]

John H. Holeman was the first agent appointed for Urah after the office was created. He reported from Fort Laramie September 21, 1851. On the trip from Salt Lake to Fort laramie he had passed many trains which had suffered heavily from Indian attacks in the Platte country. When these reached the friendly Shoshones they were suspicious of all Indians.[3]

The new agent, through the advice of Commissioner Lee and Governor Young, induced sixty chief Shoshones to go to Fort Laramie to take part in a great council which had been called there. The agent of the Central Agency refused to allow them to be parties to the treaty as they were not in his jurisdiction, but he gave them presents and they returned well pleased.

Trouble was occurring with the "Freemen." They were whites living with the Indians who would induce the natives

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[1] United States Statutes, 31 Cong., 1849-50, 163-164.

[2] Ibid., 33 Cong., 1853-54, ch. 86, 307.

[3] House Executive Documents, 32 Cong., 1 sess., Part 3, 1851-52, 444-45. Ser. No. 636.

to steal from the emigrants, then buying the stolen goods at low prices they would sell them to the next train coming along.

The passing of such numbers through Utah was having the s same effect along the whole line, game was becoming scarce, unscrupulous whites were plying theur nefarious trades and the Indians were becoming embittered and hostile. By 1852 theft and murder had become so common along the whole route from Salt Lake to California that Agent Holeman was sent to the Humboldt and Carson to try to stop the depredations.[1]

Holeman first met hunting bands of the Shoshones who professed to be friendly. Later he met "Digger Indians" who were very destitute, living on insects, small rodents or anything that would sustain life. These were evidently Goshuti Indians. On the Humboldt he found the Indians very shy. They complained that the whites killed them without provocation, even inviting them into camp to shoot them. Holeman investigated this and from other sources believed it to be true. The Shoshones were still armed with the bow and arrow.

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[1] Bancroft, H.H., History of Nevada, Colorado, and Wyoming, 205-209, gives an account of these earlier troubles. A more complete list of depredations is given by Angel in his History of Nevada, 145-149. Kelley, J. Wells, in the First Directory of Nevada Territory, gives a short account of the raids, 31-32. Davis, Sam, History of Nevada, has added but little to these.

The Piautes or, as he called them the Pi-utahs, claimed to have killed only as many whites as had been killed of their number, and stolen as much stock as they had lost to the whites. A tribe in the hills, whom he called Washaws, were also giving trouble but he was unable to treat with them as no chiefs were found. On the return trip he encountered but few Indians as they had followed his advice and gone into the hills away from the trails during the season of heavy travel. He met many wagon trains who complained of whitemen robbing them but of no Indian trouble west of the Platte. Having no authority to make treaties with the tribes he simply endeavored to quiet them. He strongly urged the establishment of military posts along the route to keep the Indians peaceful and to check the "bad" whites.[1]

The Agent felt that the conditions in the Territory were everything but satisfactory and the same opinion was voiced by the George W. Manypenny, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, "Our relations with the Indians in Utah ... remain in a very unsettled and precarious condition, arising out of the constant and unavoidable incroachment upon their territory by the whites and no provision being made for indemnifying and placing

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 32 Cong., 2 sess., I, 152-53, 440-445. Ser. No. 658.

them beyond the reach of injuries thus inflicted."[1]

Owing to the diverse and often contradictory statements of the Indian agents of the western territories the commissioner recommended that a committee be appointed whose duty should ber to investigate the Indian affairs of the far west and put them on a satisfactory footing.[2] But the plan went the way of many of its kind; Congress did nothing to change the established order.

In September 1853 Major E. A. Bedell arrived in Salt Lake to take Homslan's place, but the latter being in Carson Valley could not be removed until his return. Governor Young divided the Territory into two equal parts by a line running north and south. He placed Bedell in charge of the eastern division and appointed S. B. Rose as sub-agent to take charge of the western half.[3]

On this last trip of Holeman's to the west he had long talks with the chiefs of all the tribes and tried to get them to keep the peace. He followed the custom of the times by giving the Indians a large amount of presents.[4] It is hard

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 33 Cong., 1 sess., I, 1853-54, 259-260. Ser. No. 690.

[2] Ibid., 260.

[3] Ibid., 442.

[4] Ibid., 444-447.

to see how the natives could have survived at times without the distribution of food, blankets, etc.

Throughout his inbumbency Young gave favorable reports of the condition of his superintendency, but always asked for greater funds, with the assurance that conditions would be made still better if he had more with which to civilize the Indians. In reporting concerning the conditions he wrote: "I am sanguine in the belief that Utah would compare much to her credit, in the expenditures and results by the side of any portion of our extensive territories."[1] But against these favorable reports were placed the bad ones of the agents and the authorities at Washington evidently placed greater reliance in the latter.

The Governor was called upon several times to head greatty councils of Indians. In August 1852 six Shoshone chiefs went to Salt Lake to ask Young to call a council of Utes and Shoshones for the purpose of making peace between them. He did so and trouble between natives was ended for the time being.[2] Later he went north into the Idaho country and held a "Big Talk" with the Shoshones.[3] As this nation was

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[1] House Executive Documents, 34 Cong., 1 sess., I, part 1, 1855-56, 515. Ser. No. 840.

[2] Senate Executive Documents, 32 Cong., 2 sess., I, 1852-53, 437-438. Ser. No. 658.

[3] House Executive Documents, 34 Cong., 1 sess., I, part 1, 1855-56, 515. Ser. No. 840.

out of his superintendency he was exceeding his authority and was repremanded for so doing by Washington.[1]

In 1855 Garland Hunt was appointed agent for Utah and as rumors of trouble in the west kept reaching Salt Lake, he was sent to the Humboldt and the Carson Valley to investigate them.[2] He took along a large amount of presents to be distributed as he saw proper. On reaching the Humboldt a large number of Shoshone chiefs representing between twelve hundred and fifteen hundred Indians met him. Hunt made a treaty with them, but in so doing went beyond his authority. It was held up by Washington but the agent was not repremanded for his action. It seems that the Commissioner wished treaties to be made with the Utah Indians similar to those made with the New Mexican tribes and the Senate had failed to ratify the latter, so the Department wished to delay action in Utah until the settlement of the treaties in hand.[3]

The distance from Salt Lake to western Utah was great and the travel slow and tedious, so that the settlers in those outlying districts felt that they were not being served by the Indian Department as they should be. Consequently an agita-

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 35 Cong., 1 sess., 11, 1857-58, 600-602, Ser. No. 919.

[2] House Executive Documents, 34 Cong., 1 sess., I part, 1, 1855-56, 517-521. Ser. No. 840.

[3] Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs accompanying the Report of the Secretary of the Interior, 1856, 16.

tation was started to make a new agency to include Ruby, Humboldt and Carson valleys. In June 1856 John M. Bernhisel, Delegate from Utah in Congress, addressed a letter to the Commissioner in which he stated that he had received several communications from citizens in Carson Valley upon the matter, and the delegate made inquiries upon the practicability of the scheme. In reply, Manypenny approved of the plan as he thought the interests of both whites and Indians would be served by so doing.[1] The Secretary of the Interior at the same time received a petition of the same character signed by the Surveyor General, the Indian Agent, and the Associate Justice of Utah Territory.[2] The Commissioner in writing to the Secretary of the Interior the same year also supported the plan. So it was only a matter of time before western Utah would be formed into a separate agency.

Besides his trip to the west, Hunt spent a portion of his time in the south. Here he established three farms for the Indians. A scourge of grasshoppers destroyed the crops for several years in succession so but little benefit came of his attempts. In setting aside these farms Hunt had again

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[1] House Executive Documents, 34 Cong., 3 sess., V, 1856-57, No. 37, 142-143. Ser. No. 899.

[2] Ibid.

exceeded his authority, so again the Commissioner refused to sanction his actions, but, as before, did not repremand him.[1]

Hunt in returning from his last trip to Carson Valley took the trail through Washoe Valley, Truckee Meadoes, by Pyramid Lake and thus to the Sink of the Humboldt. In doing so he was the first agent to meet the main body of Piutes and Washos. From that time other agents followed his example. On the Humboldt he found a band of Shoshones under Chief Shocupistsee farming. They had planted about fifteen acres to potatoes, squash and wheat. They dug up the ground with hoes they had received from the government and planted it with seed given them by the neighboring settlers.[2]

In 1856 George W. Armstrong, sub-agent, visited the southern Indians living on the Muddy, Virgin, and Santa Clara rivers and on the Short and Wood creeks. The Indians were engaged in farming, assisted by the settlers. The whites felt the Indians to be a burden on them as they had to fed them to keep the natives from stealing. This partially accounts for the aid rendered the Indians by the settlers. On the Santa Clara he found the Indians especially destitute, as the grass-

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[1] Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, accompanying the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Interion, 1856, 16.

[2] Ibid.

hoppers had destroyed all the crops for several years. At that place the Indians had dug an irrigation ditch half a mile long, four feet deep and four feet wide, having no tools better than sticks. All these Indians complained of the tribes to the east stealing their women and children to sell them to the Navajos for slaves.[1]

In 1855 the activities of the Mormons among the Indians attracted the attention of the agent. He reported the matter to Manypenny. The Mormons had appointed many worthless young men to go to every tribe and preach to them, so the agent claimed, telling them that they were the rightful owners of the soil. In the meantime Charles E. Mix had been appointed Acting Indian Commissioner and he sent Hunt's report to the Secretary of the Interior asking his advice on the matter.[2] Nothing was done by the Secretary except to warn all agents against the activities of the Latter Day Saints. It undoubtedly hastened the action of Congress which on March 3, 1857 separated the governorship of Utah from the office of superintendent.[3]

Hunt's report was held for a more convenient time. This came when Young reported in 1857. He complained bitterly of

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[1] Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, accompanying the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Interior, 1856, 232-234.

[2] Senate Executive Documents, 35 Cong., 1 sess., 11, 1857 58, 593. Ser. No. 919.

[3] United States Statutes, 34 Cong., 3 sess., 1855-57, ch. 91

in sufficient appropriations and he dwelt on the need of keeping the soldiers out of the Territory, stating that it was a notorious fact that where the soldiers went there were sure to be Indian hostility. He asserted that the rumor that the United States soldiers were on their way to Utah had already caused increased hostile activity among the tribes. He ends the report by a complaint that his drafts were not being payed and his salary was being held up.[1]

In reply J. W. Denver, the newly appointed Commissioner, censored Young severely. He told the Governor that he had not done his duty, that he had sent Hunt to Carson Valley when there were no funds, and he had allowed his subordinates to spend far beyond the appropriation. Besides reports had come from Utah indicating that rebellion was being planned there. As for the soldiers the President sent them wherever he chose.[2] The Commissioner refused to allow Young salary for acting as ex-officio superintendent although the reasons for doing so were of doubtful legality. Nothing more was done concerning the matter and the whole affair was forgotten.

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 35 Cong., 1 sess., II, 1857-58, 798-602. Ser. No. 919.

[2] Ibid., 600-602.

Jacob Forney, who was appointed to fill the office of superintendent of Indian Affairs in Utah, hastened to the territory and took charge. He visited the Goshutes and made arrangments for them to be placed on a farm.[1] He held a council with the Bannock tribe, and gives us our best early account of them. They were not the same as the Oregon Bannock but spoke a different language and had different tribal customs. In these they closely resembled the Paiutes.

The Mountain Meadow massacre occurring at the time, took a large part of Forney's attention. As soon as the report came that it had been committed by the Piede Indians he notified the military department in Utah and hastened south to investigate the tragedy. He rescued the seventeen surviving children whom he found with the Mormons and sent them back to their relations in the east. His report lays the blame for the massacre on the Mormons.[2]

Owing to the continual trouble along the Humboldt trail the President ordered General A. S. Johnston to send troops to that section to protect the emigrants. Major Isaac Lynde of the Seventh Infantry was therefore directed to pro-

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 35 Cong., 2 sess., I, 1858-59, 561-565. Ser. No. 974.

[2] Ibid.

ceed thither and patrol the road. Major Lynde found many of the trains poorly armed and inviting attack by their carelessness. The Indians, in many cases, were being led by white men and it was impossible to convict them before any jury that could be impaneled.[1]

Robert B. Jarvis was appointed agent for the western section and was sent there to collect the Goshutes and Shoshones and place them on farms. Jarvis proceeded to Pleasant Valley where he found about one hundred Goshutes collected. He sent out for the rest of the tribe but they were afraid it was a trap set to kill them, so would not join their tribesmen in the valley. The agent, however, held a council with seventy-three warriors and elected a chief and sub-chief for the tribe. He then went to Deep Creek Valley and found the Goshutes had already started to cultivate the soil. With stickes they had dug up and planted about fifty acres to wheat. The crop was destroyed by grasshoppers and Jarvis, becoming discouraged, resigned his position in June of that same year and left.[2] Nothing more was done to help the Goshutes for a number of years.

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 36 Cong., 1 sess., I, 1859-60, 26-27. Ser. No. 1023.

[2] Ibid., 745-747.

The first early report concerning the Paiutes and Washos was sent by Agent Dodge in 1859. He had visited and numbered each tribe and investigated their environments and conditions. He strongly urged setting aside the Truckee Meadows for a Reservation for them. At that time only one man lived there and he would have been easily bought out.[1]

This period from the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo to the formation of the Territory of Nevada was one of beginnings in the Indian service in the west. The settlers were engrossed in the problems that arise in any new country and had little time or inclination to bother with the troubles of the Indians as long as the latter remained peaceful. At Washington the slavery question was more and more occupying the center of the stage and statesmen had but small interest in the welfare of the Indians in far away Utah. The agents, superintendents and commissioners might recommend many favorable changes in the service but Congress did little during that perior to change conditions.

The rapid shifting of the personnel of the service was another harmful feature of that period; in thirteen years, from 1848 to 1861, there were nine different agents in Utah. On account of the size and inaccessibility of the Territory

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[1] Senate Executive Documents, 36 Cong., 1 sess., I, 1859-60, 741-745. Ser. No. 1023.

it was impossible for any agent to become acquainted with the Indians before he was removed or before he resigned. From the beginning to the end of that period agent reports were filled with one subject; a description of the tribes. It would seem as if they copied the reports given before or else took the word of some emigrant concerning the condition of their wards.

By 1861 the Indians of Nevada were well known. Their lands had been settled and the game destroyed so starvation was facing them. A few had begun to work for the whites and some were living as "hangers-on" around the settlements but for the most part they were wandering around hostile and embittered. The Paiute War of 1860 had just closed and two reservations had been promised that tribe, but all were in a worse condition than in 1848.

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CHAPTER III

RESERVATIONS

In May 1860 a band of Paiutes under Natchez Winnemucca was camped near William's Station on the Carson River. Two Indian girls from the camp were seized by the whites and hidden in the barn of the station. Here they were discovered by their relatives who immediately killed the William's men.[1] Whether the above is the correct version of the beginning of the Paiute War or not makes little difference, it is certain that as soon as it was known by the tribe, they went on the war path.

A party of settlers led by Major Ormsby marched from Carson toward Pyramid Lake to put down the uprising and bringthe murderers of the William's brothers to trial.

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[1] This account is found in Life Among the Piutes, Hopkins. There is another story, given by Bancroft, Angel, and Davis, that all the Paiute chiefs were in council to decide whether they should go on the war path. Old Winnemucca refused to vote, Numega, better known as Young Winnemucca, was the only one opposed to war. His strong influence with the tribe began to have effect so many were beginning to change and favor peace. Certain young chiefs in the council then stole away and went to William's Station and killed the men and burned the buildings. They then returned to the council and announced that discussion was useless as the war had already begun.

They reached the Truckee River and marched down it to within about four miles of Pyramid Lake and were ambushed and driven back, Major Ormsby being killed.

The settlers of Carson and Virginia City hearing of the defeat sent an emergency call to California for arms, ammunition and soldiers.[1] New volunteers were raised and aided by one hundred forty-four soldiers all under Colonel Hays, a Texas ranger, marched against the Indians and scattered them after about three months campaigning.[2]

When peace was made, Agent Dodge set aside two reservations for the Paiutes. One was to include Pyramid Lake and the Truckee bottom lands for ten miles from the Lake. The other was to be at Walker Lake and to include a portion of the river land.[3] These were not officially declared to be reservations until 1873 and 1874.

When Nevada was carved out of Utah it was provided that the governor should act as ex-officio superintendent of Indian Affairs in the new territory but no provision was made for the appointment of an agent there and there were no appropriations. So the Commissioner assigned the Utah Agent to Nevada

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1 Senate Executive Documents, 36 Cong., 2 sess., 2, 1860-61, 89, Serial No. 1079.

2 Kelly, J. Wells, First Directory of Nevada Territory, 33.
Hopkins, Sarah Winnemucca. Life Among the Piutes, 70-73.
Angel, Myron. History of Nevada.
Bancroft, H.H. History of Nevada, Colorado and Wyoming, 208 - 217.
Davis, Sam. History of Nevada. 43 - 72

3 Bancroft, H.H. History of Nevada, Colorado and Wyoming, 216.

and Colorado.[1] As ex-officio superintendent Governor Nye accompanied by Agent Wasson under the protection of an escort of dragoons from Fort Churchill visited the two reservations in July 1861. At Walker River the Indians, under Chief Oderkerno, numbering about seven hundred expressed a desire for schools, farms and teachers. At Pyramid Lake he found the Paiutes under Chief Winnemucca "a prudent and sagacious" leader. Five settlers were on the upper end of the reserve whom Nye warned off. It appears that the reservation was intended for the Washos as well as the Paiutes, but as Winnemucca's Indians were always hostile to them, it would have resulted in the extermination of the Washo tribe, so Ney refused to place them on it.

The eastern boundary line had not been surveyed so at first it was not known whether the Goshutes and Shoshones were in Nye's jurisdiction. Later it was decided that they were, so the difficulties of the situation were increased. The Governor objected to having soldiers sent to Nevada, and stationed aboutthe route, as he says, the Indians would collect at the posts and be a constant trouble.

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[1] Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1861, 16. Senate Executive Document, 32 Cong. 2 sess., 1, 1861-62 634 Serial No. 1117.

Warren Wasson, the first agent after the Territory had been created, reported to the commissioner August, 13, 1861. In Western Nevada there were seven thousand Indians on the two reserves and five hundred fifty Washos off the reserves. The Paiutes owned abouttwelve hundred ponies worth fifty dollars a head. The Washos had no property. This tribe was in a helpless condition living a parasitic life around the settlements. In summer they had been accustomed to go to Tahoe Lake but since it was made a summer resort they had been driven away. Wasson feared the Paiutes were going to be driven off their reservation also, as rich mines were being discovered in the vicinity.[1]

At Walker River he built a house twenty-four feet by fourteen feet, of three rooms, and a barn thirty feet by fourteen feet. No reservation buildings were at Pyramid Lake. Wasson recommended that the Indians be given farming implements and a local agent placed among them to give them instruction in agriculture. Another feature of his recommendation is interesting as it proposed to place the Indian children in white families to better civilize them.[2]

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[1] Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs 1861, 113-114 Senate Executive Document, 37 Cong. 2 sess. 1 1861-62, 717-726, serial No. 1117.

[2] Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1861, 113.

This plan was later adopted by General Pratt at Carlisle and is known as the "Outing System".

The estimate of expenses for the ensuing year which he made shows his plans for the Indians. They are:

Team and teamster per annum	$ 1500
Interpreter's salary and field expenses	740
Soap, candles, stationery, etc.	100
To erect and furnish good adobe house at Walker	600
" " " " Suitable buildings at Pyramid	1200
Expense of extra team, teamster, agent or tea teacher	2340
Wagon, four mules and harness	(1140)
or	
Two oxteams and six ox wagons	(1450)
Issue to Paiutes annually, blankets and clothing	6600
" " Washos " " "	600
April of each year to Paiutes fancy articles	1500
"" " " " " Washos " "	150
Two Hundred cows @ $20 per head	4000
" " sheep $4 " "	800
Annually, tools, medicine, provisions, etc.	2500
Necessary farm tools and seed for next year	1000
Salary for blacksmith and necessary tools	4200
Total	29,280

The fancy articles in April he explains, were needed to keep the natives in a good humor. At that period of the year, the fishing season was well advanced and the Indians

provided with food if they wished to go on the war path.[1]

Through the early "sixties" the trouble continued in eastern Nevada. The Goshutes under chief White Horse went on the war path in 1863 and destroyed the stationhouses in their country. Captain G.P.Smith with company K of the Second California Cavalry marched to the scene and put down the trouole. But owing to the barrenness of the land, the Indians had to scatter in small bands and these were much harder to control. A few soldiers were placed at every stage station between the eastern boundary and Humboldt Sink and every stage carried a guard.[2] The trouble was not always between the Indians and whites, but at times among the Indians themselves. At Roberts Creek fifty miles east of Ruby Valley one of these incidences happened in 1862 that for a while threatened to involve the whites in war with the Indians. An old chief, Sho-hab, had died leaving his horses, wife and chieftainship to a young Indian named Buck. This was against Shoshone tradition, so a portion of the band left and joined the White Knives, kinsmen of theirs, on the upper Humboldt. Those remaining after due deliberation

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[1] Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1861, 115.

[2] Davis, Angel and Bancroft give accounts of these depredations. They were much alike consisting of a surprise, quick attack, killing a few men, burning the buildings, and stealing the stock; rarely more than twenty Indians taking part in the

concluded to follow the custom, so killing the dead chief's horses, and piling his other possessions together, they placed his wife on top and proceeded to burn everything. The squaw escaped to the station and sought protection of the agent. The Indians demanded that she be returned. The agent refused. The next morning the Indians being reinforced by the rest of their band and the White Knives returned, and threatened to kill every white man in the eastern Nevada if the squaw was not delivered to them. As they were numerous and well united, the danger was real, but before actual hostilities had occured, a White Knife shot the medicine-man who had doctored Sho-hab in his last illness. This seemed to satisfy the Indians for the trouble ended and the bands scattered.

As a means to check these hostilities and protect their property the Overland Stage Company ordered their agents to feed all Indians that came to them for food. At the same time, the commanding officer at Fort Churchil placed at the order of Governor Nye sixty thousand rations of flour and twenty thousand rations of beef. This was distributed at the stations and used to keep the Indians from starving and render the road safe for emigrants and stages.

During the Owen's River War in California, the Walker River Paiutes living close by the hostiles remained friendly with the settlers. This friendship was brought about by an incident that occurred a short time before. Governor Nye and Agent Wasson had visited the Walker River Reservation in May 1862 and found the Paiutes much excited over the death of Wah - he, oldest brother of Old Winnemucca. Wah-he

had been killed by a Walker River Indian in a quarrel. Nye and Wassen investigated the case and decided that the killing was justifiable and so quieted the Indians. Before leaving the reservation they received word from Winnemucca that the Truckee River Paiutes and the Bannock Indians were on their way to Walker River to kill the murderer of Wah-he and they intended to kill any one who interferred. Wasson hurried north to intercept the "avengers of blood", succeeded in stopping them. Then Nye going to Fort Churchill and being joined by a new agent, J.T.Lockhart, and a sub-agent, Mr. Burke, Warren, Wasson, and a company of cavalry proceeded to Pyramid. He collected the Indians and gave presents to them. Winnemucca being satisfied joing the Bannock and went to Idaho for the summer.[1]

Before that was settled word had reached Pyramid of the outbreak of the Owen's River War. As Wasson was more experienced than the new agent, Nye kept him in service and sent him to Walker River to prevent the Paiutes there from joining the Owen's River Indians.

He found them very friendly, having been favorably impressed with the Wah-he affair. Wasson being accompanied by a Paiute who could speak the Owen's River tongue, went to the scene of the disturbance, but was unable to make peace. So fearing the effect of his absence on the Walker River Indians, he returned and found all anxious for the safety of the two as they had heard that Wasson and the interpreter had been killed.

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1 Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1862, 223.

As the trouble between the Sink of the Humboldt and Salt Lake continued, Governor Nyeof Nevada and Doty of Utah collected the Shoshone and Gosnute bands at Ruby Valley, October 1, 1863 and made a treaty of peace with them. By it the two tribes were to go on a reservation where-ever or whenever the government desired and they should receive five thousand dollars annuity goods for twenty years. On their part, they promised to stop their warfare and live at peace with the whites.[1]

From this time trouble on the trail decreased but did not end for several years. As the government failed to put them on a reservation and compelled them to shift for themselves with wild game disappearing, they began to work for the settlers along the river courses, in central and eas tern Nevada. By this means an increasing number gained a livelyhood and at the same time learned the ways of civilization and to live as the white man did.

During the first years of the Territory the civil authorities were compelled to call on the military for aid on several occasions. They worked in harmony for the most part. We have already noted the case in the Paute War where United States soldiers were under the command of a civilian who had been inthe army.[2] At the time of the Owen's River War there was friction

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[1] Report of the Commissioners of Indian Affairs, 1863, 37. House Executive Document, 38 Cong. 1 sess. 111, 1863-64 511-512, Serial No. 1182.

[2] Page . Colonel Hays commanded the volunteers and soldiers

between the army and the Indian service. The soldiers were herding their horses on the reservation at Pyramid Lake and the Indians felt it an infringment of their rights.[1] There was trouble between the two over jurisdiction in the Indian Territory, and it was settled by deciding that the War Department should control the hostile tribes and the Interior Department, the tribes at peace.[2]

When Pyramid Lake and Walker River were set aside it was the intention of the Department to cultivate them for the Indians, but the first years passed with no attempts being made. The Indians lived a "hand-to-mouth" life, subsisting on fish, pinenuts, grass seed and some game. Many of them began to work for the cattlemen and other settlers, and proved themselves to be able and willing workers. The estimate given above fell on deaf ears at Washington. Jacob T. Lockhart made plans for farming at the two reservations, but resigned his office before anything was done.[3] No other attempts were made for several years, and the Indians began to drift away from the reserves and settle on the outskirts of the mining towns and in small groups around the valleys settled by the whites. In this way, they learned to work in the mines, on the ranches, and to herd stock. But, also, coming into contact with the vicious element around the towns, they learned to copy the vices of their civilized neighbors.

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[1] Report of the Commissioner of the Indian Affairs 1862, 227.
[2] Ibid, 1865, IV.
[3] Report of the Commissioner of the Indian Affairs 1863, 392.

Agent Lockhart in his report of 1863 gives a description of Walker River and Pyramid Lake reservations and of a third one on the Truckee River which was to be used as a farm for the Indians, and for its lumber.[1] In 1866 Superintendent Parker reported concerning the Truckee River Reservation, he said that it contained twenty thousand acres of good lumber,[2] and as the railroad would run through it, they would claim alternate sections. The whites would try to seize the rest, so it would be better to sell it to them and spend the money derived for the benefit of the Indians.[3] In 1864 twenty-five thousand dollars were appropriated to be used in building a saw and grist mill and digging a ditch on the Truckee River reservation. After the water was used to drive the mill it then could be used to irrigate the farm lands of the Indians. It was not supposed the mill and ditch would cost the full amount appropriated but Parker wrote that some whites had already cut a large number of logs on the reserve and it would be better to buy them and not have trouble over the matter. March 31, 1865 Secretary of the Interior J.P.Usher

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House Executive Document 38 Cong. 1 sess. 111 1863-64, 511-512, Serial No. 1182.

1 Ibid.

2 One cannot help admiring the imagination of an Indian agent who could see twenty thousand acres of good timber on the Truckee River above Wadsworth, in a country so barren that sagebrush will scarcely grow, except in the bottom lands where it is too wet for anything except wallows and cotton-wood trees.

3 Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs 1866, 30

reported that the mill had cost nineteen thousand forty-nine dollars and twenty-two cents and other expenses connected with it, five thousand dollars, making a total of twenty-four thousand forty-nine dollars and twenty-two cents.[1] Sarah Winnemucca Hopkins speaking of this transaction says: "The first work that my people did on the reservation was to dig a ditch, to put up a grist-mill and saw-mill. Commencing where the railroad now crosses at Wadsworth, they dug about a mile; but the saw-mill and grist-mill were never seen or heard of by my people. ..."[2] As the railroad was going to pass through the reservation, Usher thought it best to sell the property and reduce the reserve about five miles. By so doing, the Indians would be kept away from the railroad. He ordered Clark W. Thomas, Superintendent of the Northern Superintendency and living in Minnesota to proceed to Nevada and make the sale. He sent him blank bills of sale and mentioned that a possible buyer might be found in Mr. W. N. Leet. The sale was carried through and Mr. Leet engaged to pay thirty thousand dollars in lumber for the mill to be delivered for the lowest cash price at the rate of five thousand the first year and two thousand ~~and~~ five hundred for each succeeding ten years.

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[1] Report of the Secretary of the Interior. 39 Cong. 2 sess. 1866-67, 113 -122, Serial No. 1284.

[2] Hopkins, Sarah Winnemucca, Life Among the Piutes, 76.

When a copy of the contract reached Washington, the new Secretary of the Interior, James Harlan disavowed it and ordered Mr. Leet to be so notified. The Secretary couldn't understand several things about the "singular transaction," why was Mr. Thomas sent from Minnesota at heavy expense instead of having the Nevada or California Superintendent make the sale, why move the Indians away from the railroad if they were willing to work, and why make the sale at all, it seemed like giving Leet the mill. He ended his remarks by saying he was groping in the dark about the matter. Nothing more was heard of the affair until 1870. That year Major Douglas was appointed Superintendent for Nevada and his report of September closes the incident. He states that the three reservations had been reported in Nevada, one at Walker River, one at Pyramid Lake, and one on the Trukee River. The last one he says," does not exist". Concerning the mill, he stated that none had ever been built.[1]

The Indians of southern Nevada had received no attention since the first year or two as their homes were off the route of travel. But in 1866, J. M. Guthrie was appointed special agent for them.[2] Provision was made to supply them with food

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1870, 98

[2] Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1866, 29

farming implements and seed by way of Utah as the route was shorter from there. No reservation was withdrawn from the public domain for them until later. The next year the superintendent visited them and found them farming although some had never seen a white man before. He furnished them with other seed and a shovel.[1]

Before 1849 the War Department had controlled the Indian affairs but owing to the dishonesty that had crept into the service, it was thought best to put the Indians under civil authority. As time past, it was seen that graft was as common under civil as under military control. To remedy this, President Grant asked the religious denominations to appoint the Indian officials with the consent of the Senate. It was done, and for years the agents were recommended by the churches.

The Commissioner of Indian affairs and the superintendents felt that a remedy for the evil lay in increasing the salaries of the agents; that fiteen hundred dollars was not enough to attract able and honest men into the service with the hardships connected with it. To settle the whole matter, a Commission was appointed to meet in Chicago and make a plan for the betterment of the Service. After due deliberation,

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[1] Report of the Indian Affairs, by the Acting Commissioner, 1857.

they proposed transferring the Indian Bureau to the War Department. This met with instant opposition from the Secretary of Interior and the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, so the plan was never carried out.

When Major Douglas was appointed to take charge of the Indians in 1868, he found everything in a bad way. No records had been kept of any business transaction. The survey of the reservation had been lost and no one knew the boundaries. There were no office buildings. No attempts had ever been made to cultivate the reserves for the Indians and they were very poor. There were about six thousand Paiutes scattered over the state. A large number on Quinn's River were being fed at Fort McDermit by the army. About twelve percent earned a living by working for the whites. The Shoshones numbered five thousand three hundred twenty-five. In intellect they were below the Paiutes, about ten percent worked for their living, the rest were destitute. No reservation had been created for them after seven years of waiting. The Washo tribe numbered five hundred and lived around, Reno, Washoe City, Carson and Virginia City, in summer they lived around Long and Sierra Valleys. The Goshutes numbered eighthundred ninety-five and lived in Egan Canyon, Shoshone Range. They were destitute.[1]

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[1] Annual report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1870, 94-96.

Up to this time there had been one agent in Nevada, but in 1870 a special agent was appointed for the Paiutes, and Washos alone. J. M. Lee, the special agent, took office September, 1, 1870. He found the reservations had for years been the rendevous of cattle grazing, mining and fishing. He ejected the trespassers and promised help to the Indians. But they were skeptical, saying they had heard such promises before and nothing had ever come of them. Many of the Indians had gone and refused to return as they claimed they would starve if they did so. Chief Winnemucca and his band were at Fort McDermit along with several hundred other Paiutes. Lee issued provisions to those on the reservation at the rate of one ration per week for each man, three fourths of a ration per woman, and one third ration for each child. One ration consisted of twelve ounces of fish or bacon, eighteen ounces of flour, one tenth of a pound of coffee, one tenth of a pound of sugar, three twentieths pounds of beans, and four hundredths pounds of salt. Thus one man received less than three pounds of food per week. From March to August inclusive it cost eighteen hundred eighty-seven dollars and twenty-one cents.

The first systematic statistics were given by him that year. At the Nevada Agency consisting of Pyramid Lake and Walker River reservations, and the Indians around Moapa, four acres of land were cultivated by the Indians, and fifteen by the government. Sixteen bushels of wheat, five bushels of corn, and thirty bushels of potatoes had been raised.

Forty head of horses and ten cattle were owned by the Indians. During the year, they had sold one thousand dollars worth of fish. The Shoshones and Goshutes who were farming in places raised six hundred bushels of wheat, twenty five bushels of corn, and sixhundred fifty bushels of potatoes. They had cut forty tons of hay and owned one thousand twenty horses and twenty-two head of cattle.[1]

In 1873 the Interior Department appointed J.W.Powell and G.W.Ingalls as a special commission to investigate the Shoshones, Goshute, and southern Paiutes. They found the Indians much excited over the Modoc War. The whites were alarmed and the Indians were afraid of the whites and all wanted soldiers for protection.

The Commission assembled the Shoshones and Goshutes. They found that three or four hundred Paiutes had never reported to any reservation and never had been counted in with their tribe. They called the Paiutes around Pyramid, Paviotso and the Shoshones, Western Shoshone.

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[1] Sarah Winnemucca Hopkins tells of an incident that happened about this time. She says a sub-agent named Balcom was at Pyramid Lake during 1871. He told her that he was paying the agent, who lived at Carson, fifteen hundred dollars a year for the use of the reservation. But he did not remain long. A man named Bateman wanted the position, so he induced some Indians to frighten Balcom away and then he became rich as his predecessor had

The latter name remained but the former was not used afterwards. Powell and Ingalls recommended that the Western Shoshone and any members of the Bannock tribe found in Nevada should be placed on the Fort Hall reservation and the Paiutes of western Nevada on the Malheur River reservatimn, both in Idaho. The report ended with a condemnation of the Federal Indian policy and the influence of the army on the Indians at peace.[1]

The Commission resulted in the Indian Office ordering the chiefs of the southern Paiutes to proceed to the Unitah reservation in Utah and examine it to see if it would suit them for their future home. If they found it unsatisfactory then they would be placed on a reservation on the Muddy River at Moapa. As the first we hear of these southern Indians was in the early '50's when they were loud in their complaints against the Utes for kidnapping their children and women, and selling them to the Navajos, it is not to be wondered at that they objected to being placed on the Unitah reserve with Utes for neighbors. So they agreed to go to the Moapa if the government would furnish them with farming implements and animals, and feed them until they could become self-supporting. The tract

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1873, 41-46.

of land intended for their home was along the Muddy River. The valley had been first settled by the Mormons, who had built adobe houses and ditched the land for irrigation. A dam and mill-race had been constructed, but no mill built. When that section was found to be in Nevada, the Mormons had left the River and cattle-men had taken possession. Willows and cotton-wood trees grew along the river banks and two crops of sub-tropic plants might be raised if the water supply did not fail.

Rev. C. A. Bateman had charge of the Nevada Agency from 1871 to 1875. During this time most of the Indians left Pyramid and went to Fort McDermit or Malheur River in Idaho. Chief Winnemucca evidently opposed Bateman as the agent had nothing good to say about him, claiming that he favored the Modocs in their war.[1]

Probably the first definite step looking towards farming on any scale was taken during Bateman's term. The reports were probably much exaggerated however. He claims that a ditch two and a half miles long was dug at Walker River and a bridge thrown across the stream. From being less than twenty acres cultivated in 1870 the tilled farm land increased to nine hundred acres in 1872 with a crop eighteen bushels of wheat, fifteen hundred bushels of barley, one hundred ten bushels of corn, and five hundred fifty bushels of potatoes.[2]

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1. Annual Report of Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1873, 255
2. Annual Report of Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1874, 53

The report from Pyramid Lake aas not as favorable, as the best land was found to belong to the railroad under the Actof July 2, 1864.[1] A bridge was built across the strait between Mud Lake and Pyramid to enable the Indians to reach the fishing grounds by a shorter and more convenient route.

Bateman was much opposed to large reservations. It does not appear whether the cattle-men influenced him in his opposition but in the cases where he wished to reduce the reserved land, the stock-men would gain by the change. He induced the President to reduce the Moapa reserve from several hundred thousand acres to one thousand acres.

The first Indian school in the state was opened on the southern reservation in 1874, with one teacher in charge and twelve boys attending. The school had a short life as it was discontinued the next year and the Paiutes there had no other educational facilities for a number of years.[2]

Since 1863 the government had intended giving a reserve to the Western Shoshone tribe, so in 1875 it ordered agent Bateman to select one for them. He went to eastern Nevada and chose Coyote Creek, twenty-six miles from Carlin for its site. He followed out his principal of small reservations, as the Carlin Farm, as laid off by him

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[1] United States Statutes at Large, XIII, 1863-1865, 356.

[2] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1874, 283.

Bateman was much opposed to large reservations. It does not appear

contained five hundred twenty-two acres.[1] On this no less than one thousand nine hundred Shoshone Indians were expected to make their living. The first farmer, Mr. Palmer, gave a very good report but was much troubled by the Mormons trying to induce his Indians to leave and go to Utah to be baptized.

Although Walker River and Pyramid Lake had been occupied as reservations since 1860, yet the y were not officially established until 1874. On March 19 of that year, the President by executive order withdrew Walker River from the public domain and four days later by the same authority Pyramid Lake was established as a reservation. The former was to contain three hundred eighteen thousand eight hundred fifteen acres, and the latter three hundred twenty-two thousand acres. Together they had about six thousand acres of land that could be farmed, and a much larger amount of grazing land.[2] This action made it less likely that the cattle-men would gain the reservation; but the danger was not removed for years.

The Carlin Farm was not large enough for the Shoshones, so they wanted Duck Valley in northern Nevada and southern Idaho.[3] In March 1877, Special Inspector Watkins directed

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1875, 342.

[2] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1875, 130.

[3] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1877, 152.

the farmer at Carlin to examine the Valley. Accompanied by Captain Sam, Chief of the Shoshones at Carlin, and his nephew, he went north and gave a favorable report of the country. The President then ordered it to be withdrawn and made it a reservation for the Western Shoshones. Carlin Farm was claimed by the whites under prior location so the order reserving it for the Indians was revoked and it was again opened to settlement.

In 1878 the Bannock War occured. Bevi A.Gheen, Farmer for the Western Shoshones was summoned to Duck Valley in April, 1878 by the Bannock Indians. They told him that the Shoshones were going to join them and all go on the warpath. Gheen warned them against it and Captain Sam induced his tribesmen to keep the peace. The Farmer then sent warning to the settlers of the coming trouble. In June he heard of the Bannock outbreak and that the Shoshones were gathering at Duck Valley in preparation for joining the hostiles. He hastened to the reservation but found that his Indians were friendly, so he sent a number of them as scouts for the troops.[1]

The agent for Nevada, A.J.Barnes, stated that the Paiutes were much excited over the war but did not join the hostiles

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1878, 105.

although the Bannock sent them delegates to induce them to join in the war. A scouting system was established around the reservations so the Paiutes gave no assistance to the northern Indians.[1] Maybe the few Paiutes at Pyramid and Walker didn't take part in the outbreak but as it often is called the Bannock-Paiute War, it is evident some members of the latter tribe did go on the warpath.

Before this there had been an agent at Malheur River who had proven himself to be a capable and honest official. On account of the justice of the man, a large number of Paiutes had been attracted to the reservation, among them Winnemucca and his family, Natches, Egan, Lee and Sarah, the latter acting as interpreter for the post. The agent, Sam Parish, was removed and another man sent to take his place. The new agent was woefully inefficient and the Indians becoming dissatisfied began to drift away. In June a few Bannock Indians went to Malheur and held a conference with the Paiutes and concluded to send Sarah Winnemucca Hopkins to Washington to plead for them.[2] She set out in her own wagon with several white passengers to go to Silver City, Idaho and on the road heard of the outbreak. From there she was sent by General Howard to

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1. Annual Report of the Commissioners of Indian Affairs, 1878, 103.

2. Hopkins, Sarah Winnemucca, Life Among the Piutes, 145-147.

to find the camp of the Bannocks and try to bring her father and his band out from among the hostiles.[1] She succeeded in getting her father, Lee, and their immediate band away, but Egan was unable to leave, and Natches had gone a few days before. With her sister-in-law she rode ahead and joined General Howard, having traveled according to his statements, two hundred miles in fifty-five hours. Through out the rest of the war she remained with the army as interpreter.

The Bannocks under the Paiute chief Oytes were beaten and scattered and Egan Winnemucca killed.[2] Finally the other bands came in and surrendered. Part of the Paiutes went back to Malheur but those under the chiefs Leggins, and Paddy-Cap fearing they would starve if they went back, went to Fort Harvey in eastern Oregon and were counted in among the hostiles collected there.[3] It was the opinion of General Howard that, possibly with the exception of Winnemucca and his family, all the Paiutes were hostile or sympathized with the Bannock Indians during the war.

The government order the Bannock and Paiute prisoners to be taken to the reservation at Yakima that winter. So six hundred men, women, and children marched across the mountains,

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1 Hopkins, Sarah Winnemucca, Life among the Piutes, 151-212
Howard, General O.O. Overland Monthly, July, 1887.

2 Ibid, 585.

3 Howard, General O.O. Overland Monthly, February, 1888.

a distance of three hundred fifty miles, in December and January. Their new home was located on the Columbia in Washington and had been occupied by civilized Indians under a Catholic missionary. It was thought that association with them would do the Paiute and Bannock prisoners good. But the climate was damp and the new-commers homesick, so the deathrate ran high and dissatisfaction was rife among them.

Sarah Winnemucca Hopkins left Yakima and went to Washington to get her people returned to their old home. The Secretary of Interior promised to have them sent back. In 1884 Congress appropriated seventeen thousand dollars to be used for incidental expenses in Nevada and for collecting "Winnemucca or Leggin's Band" and returning them to their old home.[1] In the meantime Leggins had died so the Paiutes at Yakima led by Paddy Cap returned to Nevada and were settled on the Western Shoshone reserve at Duck Valley.

During the period from the formation of the Territory of Nevada to the passing of the Dawes Act in 1887, several important laws had been passed by Congress looking toward the betterment of the Indian service. The first important one was in the general appropriation act of April 10, 1869. "That there be appropria-

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[1] United States Statutes 48 Congress 1883-1885, Ch. 180;93.

ted the further sum of two million dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary to enable the President to maintain the peace among and with the various tribes, bands and parties of Indians, and to promote civilization among said Indians... and for the purpose of enabling the President to execute the powers conferred by this act he is hereby authorized, at his discretion, to organize a board of Commissioners, to consist of not more than ten persons, to be selected by him from men eminent for their intelligence and philanthropy, to serve without pecuniary compensation, who may, under his discretion, exercise joint control with the Secretary of Interior over the disbursements of the appropriations made by this act or any part thereof that the President may designate..."[1] This Board was continued from year to year. The commission that investigated the Shoshone and Goshute troubles in 1873 represented the Board.[2]

To render it more difficult for dishonest men in the service, Congress provided for Inspectors. In the general appropriations act of February 14, 1873, section six the following appeared:" That there shall be appointed by the by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the

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1. United States Statutes 40 Congress 1868-1867, 191.
2. See page

Senate, a sufficient number of Indian inspectors, not to exceed five in number, to perform the duties herein required... Each Indian superintendency and agency shall be visited and examined as often as twice a year by one or more of the inspectors. Such examination shall extend to a full investigation of all matters pertaining to the business of the superintendency or agency,... and generally, all matters pertaining to the Indian service... The Inspectors... shall have power to suspend any superintendent, agent or employe, and to designate some person in his place temporarily... So far as practicable, the examination ... shall be made alternately by different inspectors."[1] From that time the Nevada agencies were under inspection and their condition reported to the Secretary of Interior.

Then in 1878 Congress authorized the Secretary of Interior "to employ two special Indian agents at large," whose duty would be to travel over the country and inspect the service in every hand, and branch.[2] Still Congress felt the Indian Department was not being well inspected, so in 1882, they

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[1] United States Statutes, 42 Congress 1872-73, Ch. 138, 463

[2] Ibid 45 Congress. 1877-79, Ch. 142, 66.

defined the duties of the Board of Indian Commissions to be, to visit and inspect the agencies and every branch of the Indian service. The commissioner of Indian Affairs must consult the Commission on matters pertaining to his office.[1] By these three acts Congress provided for three bodies of men to inspect the service.

One of the difficulties encountered in the service was keeping order among the Indians on the reservations. The agent or other white employes could speak or understand the native tongue and there was a tendency among the tribes to shield a culprit. To overcome this, Congress provided for Indian police on the reservations by inserting into the appropriations bill of May 27, 1878 a clause stating that the sum of thirty thousand dollars be appropriated to pay four hundred thirty privates and fifty officers, the former to receive eight dollars per month and the latter ten dollars per month as salaries. Their duties were to maintain order on the reservation and help break up illegal liquor traffic.[2] Their salaries were later increased to ten and fifteen dollars per month respectively.

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[1] United States Statutes 47 Congress 1881-83, Ch. 163, 70

[2] Ibid, 45 Cong. 1877-79, Ch. 142, 86

As time passed and the Indian service became more complex the number of employes around the agencies became large. There was a tendency for the agent or superintendent to appoint as many menbers of his family as possible to fill the positions around him. To set a limit to this, Congress provided in the act of March 3, 1875 that not more than six thousand dollars a year outside of the agent's salary should be payed to employes, and wherever possible Indians should be appointed and employed.[1]

From the time of the first treaties it had been customary to grant annuities to the tribes in payment for lost lands and disappearing game. Many students and friends of the Indians believed this to be a harmful practice , claiming it pauperized the natives. The protest against feeding able-bodied men without their making any returns for the annuities resulted in a bill beind passed June 22, 1874 with the following; "That for the purpose of inducing Indians to labor and become self-supporting it is hereby provided that in distributing the supplies to the Indians for whom the same are appropriated, the agent distributing the same shall require all able-bodied male Indians, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, to perform service

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1 United States Statutes, 43 Congress 1874-75 Ch. 132, 449.

upon the reservation, for the benefit of themselves or of the tribe, at a reasonable rate, and to an amount equal in value to the supplies to be delivered." It was also provided that the President might except any tribe from the working of the act.[1] Naturally the Indians who had received supplies free objected to this act and some trouble was occasioned by it.

As soon as the Indians were settled on a reservation it was customary to employ a farmer to instruct them in agriculture. To emphasize this to a greater extent Congress created the office of "Practical Farmer" in 1884. The duties involved was to encourage and direct farming in the reservation.[2]

Although there had been attempts to educated the Indians from the early times, yet Congress made no general appropriation for that purpose until the act of August 15, 1876 was aproved. In it they gave twenty thousand dollars to be used for "industrial schools and other educational purposes for the Indian tribes."[3] From that time the appropriations steadily increased until 1887 six hundred fifty thousand dollars were voted for general educational purposes besides over four hundred thousand dollars for special schools and school needs.

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[1] United States Statutes 43 Congress 1873-74, 207.

[2] United States Statutes 48 Congress 1883-85, Ch. 180, 92.

[3] Ibid, 44 Congress 1875-77, Ch. 289, 197.

Naturally the heavy appropriations were brought about by public sentiment that demanded a better Indian school system. In 1882 Congress provided for an Inspector of Indian schools.[1] The next year his title was changed to Indian School superintendent. As there were Indian schools in every section of the United States it was impossible for one Inspector to examine every school, so that office had but little effect on the school system until the number of Inspectors was increased. The same year Congress provided for the "Outing System" for children west of the Mississippi. By this system Indians were, with the consent of their parents, placed in homes of reliable whites for a period not exceeding three years. This plan had been adopted by General Pratt at Carlisle and found very successful.

On the reservations of Nevada a school had been started in 1874, but was forced to close the next year on account of lack of funds.[2] Nothing else was done along that line until 1878 when a school was opened at Pyramid Lake with an attendance of eighteen.[3] In 1880, James E. Spencer, agent of Nevada, gave a poor account of that school. After a year's schooling scarcely a child could read in the Primer.[4]

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[1] United States Statutes 47 Congress 1881-83, Ch. 163, 70

[2] See page

[3] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1878

102 [4] Ibid, 1880, 126.

On the Nevada Agency there were eight hundred school children in 1880 and a school attendance of twelve. The next year school was started at the Western Shoshone Agency in Duck Valley with fifty children in attendance.[1] It continued until August 1882 then closed until May 1883.[2] School was started at Walker River in 1882 but owing to unfavorable conditions, and lack of attention, it did not prosper. In 1884 there were five hundred school children in the Nevada Agency and school accommodations for seven-two, while on the Shoshone Agency there were fifty one school children and accommodations for thirty-six.[3]

A number of Indians still lived at Fort McDermit, so a school was started for them in 1885 with an attendanct of eighteen. As many other Paiutes lived off the reservations it was thought best to open a boarding school at Pyramid Lake to accommodate their children. Six teachers were employed and the boys taught

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1878, 102.

[2] Ibid, 1883, 112.

[3] These figures illustrate the inaccurace of the reports of some of the agents: in 1881 the number of school children in Nevada Agency was given at eight hundred while three years later it was placed at five hundred. What became of the other three hundred? At the Western Shoshone Agency the population in 1884 was given at eight hundred thirty-six with only fifty-one school children; an absurd condition.

taught farming, blacksmithing, carpentry, and the care of stock, while the girls were taught dressmaking, cooking, and the care of the house. In all the schools the children showed marked ability in music, drawing and penmanship.

It is difficult to follow the material progress of the reservations during that period owing to the contradictory reports of the different agents. In 1878 A.J.Barnes, agent at Pyramid, speaks of the "exaggerated" statements concerning the Carlin Farm. In the statistics for that year it is given that there were raised one thousand eight bushels of wheat and eight hundred bushels of barley in the Nevada Agency. The general impression of his report is very favorable.[1] Yet the next year the new agent, W.M.Garvy, reported that the Indians were leaving the reserves owing to failure of crops and that the reports of the past agents were false. There was no way to irrigate as the water would not flow in the ditches.[2] The next year another agent took charge and reported the land overgrown with wallows, the ditches filled with dirt, the fences down and the buildings going to ruin.[3]

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1878. 102-104.

[2] Ibid, 1879, 109.

[3] Ibid, 1880, 124.

At the Western Shoshone Agency it was the same. In 1881 it was supposed to have produced six thousand bushels of wheat, four thousand bushels of oats and barley, six thousand five hundred bushels of vegetables, five hundred tons of hay, and three hundred cords of wood, and fed nine hundred horses.[1] Yet the next year another agent stated; "I have been in charge of what little has been left of the general wreck and ruin of this agency."[2] Then when Inspector Benedict and Special Agent Beede investigated the reservation in 1884 they advised the Commissioner to remove the Indians to Fort Hall and abandon the agency altogether.

Thus during the twenty-six years between the dates of the establishment of the Territory of Nevada and the passing of the Dawes Act, the reservations had been established, open hostilities of the Indians had ceased, schools had been opened, farming practical, and the Indians started on the way of the civilization of the whiteman. The next period of Indian history was to witness the preparation for the breaking up of the reservation system and the introduction of the Nevada Indian into the body politics of the common wealth.

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1881, 312.

[2] Ibid. 1882, 119.

Chapter IV

THE BREAKING UP OF THE RESERVATIONS.

To a great extent the story of the reservations had been the same throughout the United States; the Indian tribe by solemn treaty would be given a tract of country to be held by them "as long as the grass grew or the water flowed." The settlers would come and demands would go to Washington for the removal of the Indians. This would finally be done and the tribe given lands farther west. The same story was told in Nevada; Carlin Farm has been given the Shoshones and taken away from them, Moapa has been reduced from several hundred thousand acres to one thousand, on Pyramid the best land had been occupied by the whites and the railroad town of Wadsworth had grown up on the reservation. Continual demands were being made by the cattle-men, miners, farmers, and fishermen for the reduction of the reservation. The agents and inspectors had often recommended the removal of the Indians. All of this change and agitation had had a demoralizing effect on the Indians. They believe it was only a matter of time before they would lose their reserve, so what was the use of their improving it for the white man, so they reasoned.

Again it was felt that the Indian had no protection; he could not appear as a witness in court, he could not vote, he could not leave his tribe and homestead lands, he could not sell the produce of his labor on the reservation, in fact he was held as a child without a chance to grow into manhood.

Students and friends of the Indians saw this, and began to agitate for a change in policy. In the year of 1884, fifteen Indian Right's Associations were formed in the United States.[1] James B. Thayer wrote; "It has long been perceived that the key to the solution of the Indian question here is a just arrangement about their lands,-one which would abolish the tribal title, give to the individual the owenership of reasonable quantities and throw open to settlement all the rest."[2] General Crook was an advocate of the enfranchizement of the Indian; "The proposition I make," he writes," On behalf of the Indian is that he is at this moment capable with very little instruction, of exercising every manly right..."[3]

The first big step in the direction of settling the land question was taken in 1884 when Congress passed the general appropriation act of that year. It contained the following;" That such Indians as may now be located on public lands, or as may, under the direction of the Secretary of Interior, or otherwise, hereafter, so locate may avail themselves of the provisions of the homestead laws as fully and to the same extent as may now be done by citizens of the United States..."[4] One thousand dollars was appropriated to aid

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[1] McNaughton, J. H. Littell's Living Age, May 30, 1885.

[2] Thayer, James B. Atlantic Monthly, March 1888.

[3] Crook, General George, Pamphlets on North American Indians, Vol.2, 16.

[4] United States Statutes, 48 Congress. 1883-1885, 96.

the Indians in making selections and giving proof of the same at the land office, but they could not be charged any fees in making statements at the land offices. Then to give greater protection to the Indians, it was provided that;" All patents therefore shall be of the legal effect, and declare that the United States does and will hold the land thus entered for the period of twenty-five years, in trust for the sole use and benefit of the Indian by whom such entry shall have been made, or, in case of his decease, of his widow and heirs... and that at the expiration of said period the United States will convey the same by patent to said Indian... in fee, discharged of said trust and free of all charge or incumbrance whatsoever."[1] This law effected only the more advanced individual Indians and as time went on, the whites settled the open land and the law became inoperative.

Two years later the Board of Indian Commission in conference with the Indian Department drew up a bill which has come to be known as the "Severalty Act" or the"Daws Bill." The more important features of this act are; "That in all cases where any tribe or band of Indians has been, or hereafter shall be, located upon any reservation created for their use... the

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[1] United States Statutes 48 Congress. 1883-1885, 96.

President of the United Statesbe, and he hereby is, authorized, whenever in his opinion any reservation or any part thereof of such Indians is advantagious for agriculture or grazing purposes, to cause said reservation, or any part thereof to be surveyed, or re-surveyed, if necessary, and to allot the lands in said reservation, in severalty to any Indian located thereon in quantities as follows: To each head of a family, one-quarter of a section; To each single person over eighteen years of age, one-eighth of a section; To each orphan child under eighteen years of age, one-eighth of a section; and To each other single person under eighteen years now living, or who may be born prior to the date of the order of the President..one-sixteenth of a section... That when the lands alloted are only valuable for grazing purposes, an additional allotment of such grazing lands, in quantities as above provided, shall be made to each individual ... That where an Indian not residing upon a reservation, or for whose tribe no reservation has been provided... shall make settlement upon any surveyed or unsurveyed lands of the United States, not otherwise appropriated, he or she shall be entitled... to have the same allotted to him or her, and to his or her children in quantities and manner as provided in this act for Indians residing upon reservations..."[1] The section providing for the trust period is the same as in the act subjecting the Indians to the homestead laws, with an added clause authorizing the

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[1] United States Statutes, 49 Congress 1885-87, Ch. 119, 388-389.

President at his discretion to extend the period. After the allotments were made the Secretary of Interior might negotiate with the tribe for the opening of the remaining lands to settlement by the whites. Also in section six is provided: "That upon the completion of said allotments and patenting of the lands to said allotees, each and every member of the respective bands or tribes of Indians to whom allotments may have been made shall have the benefit of and be subject to the laws, both civil and criminal, of the State or Territory in which they may reside;... and every Indian born within the territorial limits of the United States to whom allotments shall have been made... and every Indian born within the territorial limits of the United States who has voluntarily taken up... his residence separate and apart from any Indian tribe of Indians therein, and has adopted the habits of civilized life, is hereby declared to be a citizen of the United States, and is entitled to all the rights, privileges, and immunities of such citizens."[1]

Thus by this Act the Indian had a way opened to him by which he might gain control of his own land and become a citizen of the United States, with rights of sufferage as granted within the State or Territory in which he resided.

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[1] United States Statutes. 49 Congress 1885-1887, 390.

Some were strongly opposed to the Act. It was held that only the younger element in the tribe wished for the division of the lands.[1] Another argument given against it was that most of the reservations were desert and the allotments were impossible.[2]

In Nevada the opening of the period was marked by but little change. The Moapa reserve had been dropped and the Indians turned loose to shift for themselves. The land was not opened for settlement however, and later control of the southern part was resumed.

On the Western Shoshone Agency Paddy Cap's band of Paiutes had settled and been assigned lands. The Indians had increased the amount of land cultivated but owing to squirrels the crops were poor. Shoshones and Paiutes together number four hundred eleven. All wore citizen's clothes. Forty-seven could read, twelve having learned this during that year. Two hundred could carry a conversation in English. The reservation contained three hundred twelve thousand three hundred twenty acres, of which eight thousand one hundred were possible of cultivation and four hundred ten acres were then being tilled by eighty families. Eighty percent of the Paiutes there received rations, while forty-five percent of the Shoshones did. The harvest that year had consisted of

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[1] The Nation, July 21, 1904.

[2] Oates, James Wyatt. The California, September 1881.

four hundred fifty bushels of wheat, twenty bushels of corn, three hundred ten bushels of barley, eleven hundred eight bushels of vegetables, one hundred melons, and four hundred tons of hay. The school had a capacity of forty but the school population was eighty-eight. One teacher was employed and the school cost the government per capita per month four dollars and nine cents.[1]

At the Nevada Agency, consisting of the reservations at Pyramid Lake and Walker River, the conditions were about the same as at the Western Shoshone Agency. The agent reported eigh hundred ninety four Indians on the reserve of whom seven hundred fifty were children of school age.[2] The school capacity at Pyramid Lake was forty-eight and at Walker River thirty-five. At the former there were seven teachers employed and one at the latter. In both cases the average attendance was above the school capacity, being fifty-seven at Pyramid Lake and thirty-eight at Walker River. The cost to the government per capita per month was sixteen dollars and ninety-six cents at the former and three dollars and ninety-five cents at the latter. One hundred twenty-five could read, thirty-three having learned the past year. Four hundred twenty-five spoke English. Thirteen percent

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[1] Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs 1887, 165-166.

[2] Ibid. 1887, 356, 162-165.
The report as given is absurd, he probably meant that all the children of parents who lived in the towns and camps around Nevada, but belonged to his agency numbered seven hundred fifty.

of the Indians received rations and they were those who were unable to earn a living for themselves.

The crops of that year consisted of sixty-eight hundred bushels of wheat, one hundred fifty bushels of corn, sixteen hundred bushels of barley, two thousand fifty bushels of begetables, six thousand melons, twenty-seven thousand pumpkins, and seven hundred tons of hay. The Indians had hauled freight for the government and been payed thirteen hundred sixty-five dollars.

The school at Pyramid, although an industrial boarding school, took the pupils only through the elementary stages of an education, so in 1887 twenty of the best pupils; ten from Walker River and ten from Pyramid Lake, were sent to the Industrial School at Grand Junction, Colorado. That seemed a long way to go from home and the parents of the children felt that they had lost them forever. To prevent the necessity of sending Indian children out of the state, the Nevada Legislature appropriated ten thousand dollars to be used in founding a school at Carson or somewhere in Ormsby County.

The Indian Police force had been organized at all the reservations and seemed a success. Courts of Indian Offense had been established at Walker River and Pyramid Lake, but not at the Western Shoshone Agency. The working and decisions of the court were often original to say the least; at Walker River it ordered several Indians to be tied to trees for twenty-four hours as punishment for drunkeness. At Pyramid

Lake in a case of "mother-in-law" the culprit was sentenced to serve ten minutes in the jail. She pleaded that it would humiliate her, and to prevent that, she asked that the judge also serve ten minutes with her. It was so ruled and judge and culprit served the sentence.

In 1889 the agent at Western Shoshone Agency sent to Washington a petition signed by the head men of the agency asking for the allotment of their reservation. This was the first of a long list of such petitions originating at that reserve; from then until 1905 the matter was urged by all the different agents who officiated there.

The agent mentioned above, John B. Scott, was severely censured by the Inspector for the delapidated condition of farm lands and buildings on the reservation. Later he was repremanded by the Commissioner for not reporting a number of beeves owned by the Indians. His reply is interesting; he wrote that the Department could not expect him to build "brown-stone-fronts" without funds, and as for the beef, he had purchased the purchased the required amount in open market two years before at six and eight cents while, the last year the Department had given a contract to a man in Kansas City at twelve and one-half cents. That man sublet it to another at nine cents and the second sublet it to the Indians at five cents and then the Indians didn't

receive their pay. He ended with, "the contractors have too much influence with the Indian office."[1] It is needless to say that the agent was removed.

Although the agents might report of the advance of their work yet the old superstitions still remained. In 1880 Old Winnemucca was taken ill and the tribe, to aid his recover, stoned his wife and child to death.[2] The remedy was not successful as the chief died. At the Western Shoshone Agency, in 1890 an old medicine man, known as Doctor Boy, died. The tribe began to kill his horses and burn his property but the agent, William I. Plum, interferred and stopped the destruction. A friend of the old man then went to the camp of an epileptic, accused of having bewitched the medicine-man, and killed her. The Indians felt that the angry gods would be appeased so they were willing to let the horses alone. The man who killed the witch was taken to Carson and tried before the United States Circuit Court and acquited.[3]

In the Nevada Agency many of the old Indians claimed large holdings of land which they did not use. This resulted in the younger and more industrious ones having none. To

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[1] Fifty-Eighth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1889, 252.

[2] Davis, Sam. History of Nevada, 128.

[3] Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1890, 152

overcome this the agent, C.C. Warner, appealed to the Indian Court. Its decision went against him so he reversed the ruling of the Court and recognized the lands.

The first allotments in severalty made in Nevada were given to the Paiutes living at Stillwater, Churchill County. In 1890 the Department ordered the Agent of the Nevada Agency to make the allotments. He did not fully complete them, but the task was finished by two successors. The land allotted covered many miles of sage-brush plain, desert and mountain. A part of them could be cultivated. A few contained the pine-nut groves and were valuable but a large number were worthless.

In 1890 the Stewart Institute, better known as the Carson City Industrial Training School, was opened with a capacity of one hundred fifty pupils and an attendance of thirty-seven. This rapidly increased until the full capacity was reached.[1] The school is situated in the Carson Valley, three and one-half miles from the capital. The farm connected with the school contains two hundred forty acres of which about one hundred can be cultivated. At the opening of the school there were on the grounds a school building, two dwelling houses, a barn, a shed, a tank house, a laundry, a wood and coal house, and cattle corrals. The schoolhouse and laundry

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[1] Sixtieth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs 11, 1891, 39-40.

were fitted with hot and cold waterpipes in the bathrooms.

W. D. C. Gibson was the first superintendent of the school. Besides him there were six teachers, a matron and two assistants, a physician, a farmer, a clerk, two seamstresses, three laundresses, three cooks and two assistants, and four Indian laborers. The salaries ranged from fifteen hundred dollars drawn by the superintendent to one hundred twenty dollars paid to the Indian laborers. In all they amounted to seventeen thousand five hundred sixty dollars.

The purpose of the school was to furnish a higher education for the pupils;of the reservation schools and to supply the non-reservation Indian children with educational facilities. The latter so outnumbered the former that the school was soon given over to them.

A number of Paiutes lived on the outskirts of Wadsworth, six miles from the reservation school so to furnish their children with a school, one was started at Wadsworth in 1890. Twenty-four children attended and were in charge of one teacher.[1] The superintendent of the boarding school at Pyramid Lake always opposed it. He argued that the children would do better to be taken away from the environment of camp life and associations encountered around the town and place them in the boarding school. This continual opposition resulted in the abandonment of the school in 1896.

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[1] Sixtieth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 2, 1891, 6.

The town of Wadsworth was situated on the southern end of the Pyramid Lake reservation and the land along the river for five miles had been settled by the whites. Some of these claimed to hold their land by titles prior to the reservation. To settle the difficulty Congress made an appropriation, June 30, 1892 to enable the Secretary of Interior to negotiate with the Paiutes for the relinquishment of that portion of their reservation. A commission of three were appointed and ordered to provide to Wadsworth and settle the affair. They did so, and an agreement was signed by the Indians by which they engaged to relinquish the site of Wadsworth and seven miles down the river. The government was to pay twenty thousand dollars for the land by furnishing the Indians with cattle.

The aggreement was sent to Washington and endorsed by the Department, but when it came to the Senate it was held up. In the debate over the treaty it was learned thatcertain parties in Nevada wanted the relinquishment of the whole of Walker River reservation and the northern and western sides of Pyramid Lake reservation. Nothing further was done for three years. In 1895 a bill was introduced in Congress to appropriate funds for the digging of a ditch to irrigate Pyramid Lake reservation. It was proposed to commence the canal forty-five miles above the reservation and to make it large enough to drain the Truckee River. The bill provided that any white man could use the water before it reached the reservation. It was claimed that the proposed ditch would

furnish enough water to irrigate all of Pyramid Lake reserve and open enough land for farming to supply all the Paiutes in Nevada. Therefore the bill also provided for the relinquishments of the Walker River.[1] The Indian Department sent a member of the Board of Indian Commission to investigate the affair. His report was not favorable to the bill. He claimed that it was in the interest of the whites and would be harmful to the Indians. As the bill would allow any farmer to draw water from the ditch before it reached the reservation, it was doubtful if any would remain for the Indians. The cost would be two hundred thousand dollars instead of one hundred nineteen thousand dollars as estimated. The report also claimed that certain cattle-men and the Carson and Colorado Railroad were behind the proposed change.[2] The Secretary of Interior asked Congress to defeat the bill and it was finally done.

The Railroad mentioned above had been granted permission to cross the Walker River reservation in 1882 on condition that it would carry the goods of the Indians free and would allow them to ride on its cars without charge.[3] They had carried out the latter part of the agreement but refused to bide by the first part. The Department brought suit against the road and they were compelled to refund all freight charges collected

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1. House Executive Document, Report of the Secretary of the Interior, 54 Congress, 1 session, 2, 1895, 101. Serial No. 3382. 2.195-96, 209, Serial No. 3382.

3. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs 1882, Page XVIII.

from the Indians and to follow theagreement in the future.

From time to time in the history of this country prophets or those claiming super-natural powers have appeared among the Indians. One of these had lived in Mason Valley during the early times.[1] His son claimed that his father was one who saw visions and had dreams. He died in 1874 leaving one child, Wovoka, fourteen years old. The boy was taken by the Wilson family and grew up in their home. The Wilsons were members of the church and so gave the boy a Christian training. His Indian name was dropped and he became known as Jack Wilson.

In 1887 while still working for David Wilson, he claims to have been in the woods one day when he had a vision, in which he was told that a Messiah was coming to help the Indians. January 1, 1889 there was a total eclipse of the sun and during the time, he says, God took him to heaven and showed him everything and told him that soon all the whites would die and all the dead Indians and all the game would be resurrected.

Wovoka began to preach among the tribes telling them that they must not quarrel or fight but should love each other. He taught that they should be industrious and honest and live at peace with the settlers. He showed them a new dance that they must perform five nights in succession and during the

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[1] Mooney, Fourteenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, 1892, 764.

morning of the fifth. It was danced by all the Indians joining hands and circling around some object at which they constantly looked while chanting a song. After the dance was over on the fifth morning all should bath in running water.

Wovoka's reputation spread through Nevada and to the neighboring tribes before the winter of 1889 and 1890 but that season gave him fame for beyond the boundaries of the State. There had been a severe drouth through the West for two years. The Indians suffered from it as there but little feed for their ponies and the grass-seed and pine-nuts crops were failing. They emplored Wovoka to break the drouth and bring storm. After due deliberation, he told his followers that a big storm would be sent for them. That was late in October 1889. A few days later it began to storm and kept on with little intermission until the middle of April. Throughout Northern California and Nevada it is still known as the "Hard Winter." The Indians reasoned that any one who could break such a drought and bring such a winter must have supernatural powers. They spread his fame to distant tribes and delegations visited him from the Arapahoe, the Crows, the Cheyennes, the Sioux, and the tribes of the Territory. His dance, which became known as the "Ghost Dance," was introduced among the tribes. This Messiah Craze resulted in

the Sioux war of 1891 and the deathof Sitting Bull.

The government sent inquiries to all the western reservations to learn the meaning of the excitement. The agent of the Nevada Agency, C.C. Warner, ignored the Craze and claimed the Lance was not being practiced by his Indians. At the western Shoshone Agency, the dancing was broken up by the agent refusing to issue rations to the dancers. The excitement became a local affair practically, at intervals practiced for several years but finally was given up.

The Wadsworth trouble continued. Congress passed an appropriation act, July 1, 1898, which allowed the people of Wadsworth to obtain a title to their town site and lots in it. Any Indian who held a lot in the town might secure a title then under the same conditions as a citizen of the State. The grounds of the Wadsworth Indian School were reserved for the Indians.[1] In 1902 the Central Pacific Railroad straightened its line and left Wadsworth off the main road. The railroad shops were moved away and its population rapidly dwindled. By 1905 the Indian service felt that the town would soon disappear and it therefore gave up the controversy over the reservation lands.[2]

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[1] United States Statutes , 55 Congress, 1897-1899, Ch. 545, 594.

[2] Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, pt.1 1905, 256,

On all the reservations of Nevada irrigation was an important feature. The Western Shoshone Agency had good land that could be watered. The officials there desired to build a reservoir to store the spring floods but finally had to abandon the project as too expensive. The Owyhee River was dammed and three ditches dug to bring all the available land under a state of cultivation. These three ditches drained the River under ordinary circumstances so the possibility of increasing the tilled land was passed.[1] Alfalfa was introduced and proven a valuable source of support for the Indians. Grain was not a success as the crops were destroyed year after year by barwood, squirrels, and blackbirds. The agents tried to induce the Indians to poison the squirrels which did the greatest damage. But the pests furnished the Indians a very important article of food so the natives would not destroy them.

At Pyramid Lake a dam had been built across the Truckee River and a ditch dug down the western side and then the water was carried in a flume across the river to irrigate the lands on the eastern side. At first the dam was a weak affair and the spring floods constantly damaged it, then when it was rebuilt and made substantial the Nevada and California Fish Commissioners constantly complained of it.

In 1899 Inspector Graves investigated the whole question and drew up a plan for a new irrigation system at the Lake.

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1 Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, Indian Affairs. pt.1 1902. 211.

A ditch costing six thousand five hundred dollars was dug to tap the River below low-water mark and down the western side to the old ditch. It was planned to dig another ditch down the western side from the head of the flume to the lands on the western side of the Lake. By so doing three thousand acres could be brought under cultivation.[1] Although the ditch from the head-gate to the flume was enlarged to carry five thousand miner's inches of water, yet nothing was done at Washington to promote the westside ditch and the plan was finally dropped.

In 1892 Special Allotting Agent, Michael Riggott, was ordered to Fort McDermit to allot the land to the Indians living around the Post. As many of the allotments were worthless, the government ten years later, ordered Mr. Casson to re-allot the land in plots of five and ten acres each. He induced the old allottees to relinquish their land and where they were dead the court took action.[2] The allotments were made and the Indians were placed in charge of the Nevada Agency for the trust period.

After the officials had been withdrawn from Mompa in 1880, the government took no more notice of the Indians

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[1] Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, pt.1 1899, 456.

[2] Ibid. pt. 1, 1900, 61.

there until 1903. That year President Roosevelt, by executive order, added one hundred and three acres to the reserve to make it easier to protect from trespassers.[1] William C. Sharp was appointed Industrial Teacher and Disbursement Agent of the reservation. A school was started with one teacher. The land was covered with sagebrush and therefore could only be broken up with the heaviest plows. Farming had been given up on the reservation and the Indians were working for the whites. Whisky sellers had flourished among them and the natives had suffered accordingly. The reports were discouraging.[2]

For past several years it had been the policy of the government to reduce the official list on the reservation. At Pyramid Lake the boarding school had done the work of an industrial school almost from the foundation. Therefore to carry out its policy of reduction and to cause the school to appear in its true character, the office of agent was abolished and the school organized as the Nevada Agency Training School. The former agent, Fred. E. Briggs, was placed in charge of the Agency and the school as Superintendent.[3]

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[1] Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, Indian Affairs, pt.1 1903, 281.

[2] Ibid, pt.1, 1904, 244.

[3] Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, 1900, 301.

The agents had lived at Pyramid Lake although most of the Indians were at Walker River. The home reserve had received the greater attention, so that the Walker River Indians had been neglected; they had poorer educational facilities, poorer irrigation systems, and poorer instruction in all the arts of civilization. To overcome this the Department in 1897 transferred those Indians to the control of the superintendent of the Carson Training School. The neglect they had been subject to can be appreciated by reading the first report of the superintendent concerning them. He said that two hundred acres of wheat and eighty acres of barley had been planted that year and the only tools the Indians had to cut the grain with were butcher knives. He adds; "Think of it, at this day and date of the world, attempting to teach a class of uncivilized people to be self-supporting, and ask them to harvest grain with butcher knives... It seems to me that those people could have been provided with sickles at least, but I understand that there is but one of these modern improvements on the reservation, and that is broken."[1]

Five years later saw the "beginning of the end" of Walker River reservation. May 27, 1902, Congress passed the appropriation bill for the Indian service. It contained the

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[1] Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, pt.1 1897, 188.

following; "That the Secretary of Interior be... directed to allot from the land on the Walker River Reservation in Nevada suitable for irrigation by the present ditches, or extensions thereof, twenty acres to each head of a family residing on said reservation, the remainder of such irrigable land to be allotted to such Indians on said reservation as the Secretary of Interior may designate, not exceeding twenty acres to each; and when the majority of the head of the families on said reservation shall have accepted such allotments and consented to the relinquishment of the right of occupancy to land on said reservation, which cannot be irrigated from existing ditches and extension thereof... such allottees who are heads of families shall receive the sum of three hundred dollars each to enable them to commence the business of agriculture... And when such allotments shall have been made, and the consent of the Indians obtained as aforesaid, the President shall, by proclamation, open the land so relinquished to settlement, to be disposed of under existing laws."[1] Later in the session it was modified to include a sufficient amount of grazing land for the Indians. Then the sixty-third Congress added a sufficient amount of timber land to the allotments.[2]

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1. United States Statutes at Large, 62 Congress 3d, pt.1 1911-1913, Ch. 888, 889.

2. United States Statutes at Large, 63 Congress 3d, pt.1 1913-1915, Ch. 3604, 358.

To carry out this act, James McLaughlin, United States Inspector, was sent to examine the reservation. He found it would take six townships for the farming and grazing land.[1] The cost of surveying the land was estimated by the Surveyor General of Nevada to be eleven thousand one hundred thirty-eight dollars and seventy cents. The survey was made and Mr. Casson appointed to allot the land. July 22, 1905, J. R. Meshmous was assigned to plan a system of irrigation so that every allotment would be irrigated.

Mr. Casson made four hundred ninety-one allotments amounting to nine thousand seven hundred eighty-three and one-quarter acres. He also set apart eighty acres for the school, forty acres for a cemetary, one hundred sixty acres for a church thirty-seven thousand three hundred ninety and twenty-seven-hundredths acres for grazing and three thousand three hundred fifty-six and sixty-two hundredths acres for timber.[2]

After the allotments were made the Indians agreed to relinquish the remainder of their land according to law. So September 26, 1906, President Roosevelt opened the remainder to settlement.[3] Much interest was taken in the opening of the

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[1] Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, Indian Affairs, pt.1 1903, 96.

[2] Report of the Department of the Interior, 2, 1907, 60, Serial No. 5296.

[3] United States Statutes at Large, 59 Congress 34, pt. 3 1905-1907, Serial No. 3237.

reservation. Practically all the agricultural, grazing and timber lands had been allotted to the Indians, but it was believe that there were valuable mines in the portion thrown open. A rush followed but no discoveries of importance were made.

As mentioned before[1], there was constant agitation at the Western Shoshone Agency for the allotment of the reservation.[2] Calvin Asbury recommended that the grazing be held for the Indians but the remainder be allotted. In 1906 John J. McKoin, in charge of the reservation, strongly opposed allotment as the land could never be used for farming to advantage on account of the long winters and short summers.[3] Thus the matter rested.

By an act dated April 21, 1904, Congress provided for the allotment and the opening of Pyramid Lake reservation. The act provided; "That there shall be reserved for and allotted to each of the Indians belonging on the said reservation five acres of irrigable land. The remainder of the irrigable land in reservation shall be disposed of to settlers under the provisions of the reclamation act."[4]

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1 See page

2 Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1892, 325; 1894, 202.
Annual Report of the Department of the Interior, 1900, 284, 1904, pt.1, 248.

3 House Executive Documents, 59 Congress 2 session. XV, 1906-1907, 274, Serial No. 5118;

Superintendent Spriggs was much opposed to the allotments as he claimed that five acres was not enough for any Indian to make a living from in Nevada.[1] Whether that was the cause, cannot be said but no action was taken and the reservation remained unallotted.

While the Department had been following the policy outlined above, the school system had become an important item in the Federal management of the Indians. The number of pupils in 1906 at Pyramid Lake was sixty-four; at Carson, two hundred ninety; Fort McDermit, fifty-three; Western Shoshone Agency, eighty-two; Moapa, twenty-one; and Walker River, twenty-four; in all five hundred thirty-five. They were drawn from an Indian population at Pyramid Lake of five hundred fifty-four; Walker River, four hundred eighty-six; Western Shoshone Agency, five hundred nine; Moapa, one hundred twentynine; and off the reservations, three thousand seven hundred and one; in all five thousand three hundred seventy-nine. The schools cost the government sixty-nine thousand four hundred thirteen dollars and eighty-seven cents, or one hundred eleven dollars and five cents per child. The pupils were taught reading, arithmetic, spelling, geography, physiology, hygiene, history, penmanship, grammar, drawing and music.

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1 Annual Report of the Department of the Interior. Indian Affairs, pt.1 1905, 257.

In the boarding and industrial schools the boys were taught besides theabove, carpentry, blacksmithing, tailoring, plumbing, stonework, and brick-laying, care of stock, planting, irrigating and harvesting crops and general farm work. The girls were also taught dressmaking, cooking, care of the house, and care of the sick. Many of the better pupils were sent to other schools. The Western Shoshone Agency in ten years sent over fifty children to Grand Juncion, Colorado, Phoenix, Arizona, and Carlisle.

Among the other changes for the better was the placing of all the officies on the reservation under the Civil Service. This would eliminate a large amount of the graft of the early days.

RESUME.

When the whites first entered Nevada they found two linguistic families; the Washon and Shoshonean. The Washos were but few in number; there being about nine hundred in the tribe. The Shoshonean family were composed of several tribes; the Paiute, the Bannock, the Goshute, the Shoshone and several in the south which were a mixture of Paiute and Ute. The Washo lived in the west along the California-Nevada boundary line from Honey Lake to Carson Valley. The Paiutes also lived in the western section; ranging from the northern boundary to Walker Lake and from the Washo territory to the Humboldt. The Goshutes roamed the extreme eastern section. While the Shoshone and Bannock tribes occupied the territory between the Paiute and Goshute. In all the Nevada Indians numbered about fifteen thousand.

There are but few rivers and lakes in the state. Humboldt, Truckee, Carson, Walker, Reese, and Owyhee being the important streams and Pyramid Walker the chief lakes. The Owyhee River flows into the Columbia while the others empty into lakes or sinks.

The state has a high elevation, averaging five thousand five hundred feet, while the Sierra Nevada mountains running along the whole western border shuts off the moisture laden winds blowing from the Pacific

and results in a climate dry and subject to extremes of temperature. This causes a sparse growth of vegetation throughout the state. It follows then that the animal life would be scarce.

When Nevada became a possession of the United States the Federal Indian policy had taken form. By the Proclamation of 1763 King George recognized the Indian tribes as having certain rights akin to independent nations. The Continental Congress followed the precedent. They appointed delegates to treat with the Indian tribes and offered the Deleware tribe, if joined by others, the right of representation in Congress. For several years after the Revolution this opinion held. It was expressed in the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Georgia v. Cherokee Nation in which Marshall declared the Indians to be domestic dependent nations, whatever that might be. A change came later and the Indians were considered subject to all the laws of the United States.

The Continental Congress laid the foundation for the machinery of the Indian Bureau. They appointed a committee to investigate our relations with the Indians and later made it permanent. They provided for superintendents and placed the Indians under the War Department. After the Revolution owing to increased importance of our Indian relations, a Commissioner of Indian

Affairs was appointed.

On June 30, 1834 Congress passed an act that became the organic law of the Indian service. Our relations with the Indians for the next two generations were governed by it. The reservation system had been adopted and annuities were granted many of the Indians.

After the first white man entered the state in 1776 half a century passed before others came. Then trappers began to drift along the stream. Smith crossed the state from west to east; Ogden discovered the Humboldt and named it Mary's River. Fremont passed through on his way to California and camped on the shores of Pyramid Lake. Carson, Walker, Beckworth and many another lesser light crossed the state or trapped on the rivers in those early days.

Then came the discovery of gold and the emigrants rushed west. A few took the trail across southern Nevada but the largest travel was over the Humboldt trail from Salt Lake and then on to the Carson Valley or the Truchee Meadows and over the mountains. The goverment bestirred itself to provide means of controlling the Indians along the route. The governor of Utah was made ex-officio superintendant and an agent transferred from the upper Missouri. Congress then provided for a permanent official to take that position. The first reports coming from the Indian office in the new territory were very incomplete and unreliable; they tell of

three tribes living in the country, the Shoshones, the Utes, and the Parmaches. The first two were located in general in the territory the agents described, but the latter one is hard to place.

The first Indians to begin open hostilities in Utah were the Utes. They attacked the emigrants and haunted the trails until the Territory of Utah took steps to put down the uprising. The Federal government came to their aid and forced the Utes to sign a treaty. By it the Indians were to go on a reservation and cease their warfare, while the government on its part agreed to supply them with farm implements and instructors, and an annuity of good

As the emigrants passed along the Humboldt they killed or drove the game away, and destroyed the grass seed. The Indians soon became destitute. The whites were not careful of the rights of the natives and often treated them cruelly. Theft and murder became common all along the trail. The Indians attacked and robbed any defenseless train that came along. To stop this Agent Holman was sent west. He met the Shohone, Bannock and Goshute bands and tried to pacify them. They were loud in their complaints against the whites but promised to cease their depredations.

Governor Young divided the Territory of Utah into two

divisions, placing a sub-agent in charge of the western half. He called a council of the head chiefs of the Utes and Shoshone nations and made peace between them. Later he went north into Idaho and held another council with the Shoshone chiefs. He spent the appropriations freely and often was heavily in debt. He sent Agent Hunt to Carson Valley to stop the trouble between the whites and Indians.

On reaching the west, the Agent called the Paiute chiefs together and held a council with them. They professed to be friendly but claimed that the settlers killed them without cause and they were only trying to protect themselves. He was unable to meet the Washo chiefs. On the Humboldt he collected the headmen and signed a treaty with them, but was disavowed by Washington.

These trips were expensive and took a great deal of time so the service could not afford to send an agent from Salt Lake to Carsen Valley many times. This resulted in a feeling that western Utah was being neglected by the Indian Bureau so an agitation was started to create a new superintendency there to include Carson, Humboldt and Reese River valley.

There was a feeling of hostility between the Mormons and other whites which often encouraged the Indians in their attacks. Young was accused of plotting against the government and was removed from the office of ex-officio

superintendent. Superintendent Forney had been on the grounds but a short time when the Mountain Meadow Massacre occurred. He notified the military, then going to the scene of the tragedy he collected the surviving children and sent them east.

Soon after he directed sub-agent Jarvis to collect the Goshutes and place them on a reservation. Jarvis went to Pleasant Valley and held a council with a band of those Indians then proceeded to Deep Creek Valley where the Indians were already farming. He remained there a short time then becoming discouraged, he resigned.

The friction between the settlers and Paiutes came to a crisis in 1860. William's Station on the Carson River was burned, the men killed. Major Ormsby led a body of volunteers against the Indians and was defeated. Another force was raised and attacking the Indians, scattered them. Peace was made and Agent Dodge and Governor Nye gave the Pyramid Lake and Walker River reservations to the Paiutes.

Again the Shoshone and Goshute bands began to attack the emigrants and stage stations from the eastern line to the banks of the Humboldt. Soldiers were placed at every stage house and a force took the field against the hostiles. The Indians were everywhere beaten and driven away. To prevent a like occurance the overland mail company ordered its station keepers to feed all Indians who came to them. The government distributed a large amount of supplies along the route to aid the company. Governor Nye of Nevada and

Governor Doty of Utah collected the Shoshone and Goshute tribes and signed a treaty with them in 1863. The Indians were to be given a reservation and five thousand dollars annually for twenty years.

During the Owen's River War the Paiutes remained friendly. Agent Wasson was constantly with them and handled the situation with skill and justice.

The reservations were not adapted to support many Indiand without irrigation and the government failed to help the Indians construct ditches or clear their farms. Trespassers took the best lands, especially at Pyramid Lake. Cattlemen grazed their stock on the reserve and fisherman were constantly trespassing. The Indians began to leave the reserves and settle around the towns and valleys of the state.

In 1863 Agent Lockhart reported three reservations in the state; one at Walker River, one at Pyramid Lake, and one on the Truckee River. Two years later the one on the Truckee was said to contain twentythousand acres of good timber. He advised the Department to build a mill on it to saw lumber and to be used as a grist mill. Congress appropriated twenty-five thousand dollars for the purpose. The superintendent reported the mill built at a cost of twenty-four thousand forty-nine dollars and twenty-three cents. The next year all was sold but the new Secretary of the Interior revoked the sale, and the matter was dropped. In 1870

Major Douglas reporting from Carson stated that there was no reservation on the Truckee River and no mill had ever been built. However, nothing was done to investigate the affair.

Several years passed after the treaty of 1863 before the government made a move to place the Goshutes and Shoshones on a reservation. Finally J.W.Powell and G.W.Ingalls were sent to Nevada to examine the conditions of the eastern Indians. They advised placing the Goshutes on the Unitah reservation and the Shoshones on the Fort Hall reserve. They visited the bands along the Muddy River and recommended placing them on a reservation somewhere. The government created a reserve for them at Moapa on the Muddy River and a farmer was put in charge. A school was started there but had no success and closed after a year's time. The reservation was reduced to one thousand acres. It was not a success and finally in 1886 the government withdrew its control of the Indians there.

Under Agent Bateman, 1871 - 1875, the first definite steps towards farming were taken at Pyramid Lake and Walker River. A canal two and a half miles long was dug at the latter place and farming commenced. At Pyramid Lake the agent did not do so well, but some attempts were made there. A short ditch was dug and a temporary dam put in the Truckee River.

Biterman was sent to eastern Nevada to choose a reservation for the Shoshones of the state. He decided on lands along Coyote Creek close to Carlin, Nevada. The farm was small but well cultivated. It could not furnish a home for all the Shoshones so Inspector Watkins ordered the farmer in charge to examine Duckh Valley in northern Nevada and southern Idaho. He did so and recommended it for a reservation. The President created the Western Shoshone Reservation by executive order in 1877.

The reservation at Pyramid Lake and Walker River had never received official sanction until 1874 when they were withdrawn from settlement by executive order, but the Indians there were dissatisfied and many left and went to Malheur River in Idaho. They had become very dissatisfied there when the Bannock War broke out. Many of the Paiutes joined the hostiles and fought with then through out the trouble. Sarah Winnemucca Hopkins induced her father and his family to leave the Bannock camp and join the soldiers. She acted as interpreter for General Howard throughout the war. After the trouble was ended the Bannock and Paiute prisoners were sent to the Yakima reservation in Washington. Here conditions were bad and Sarah Winnemucca Hopkins went to Washington to secure the release of her people. Congress finally appropriated funds for their return and they were settled on the

Western Shoshone Agency at Duck Valley.

During this time Congress had passed several much needed laws looking toward the improvementof the service. A Board of Indian Commissioners was created, whose duty it was to confer with the Commissioner of Indian Affairs and to inspect the reservation. Inspectors were appointed to examine everything that related to the Indian Bureau and Special Agents were assigned to help them. Appropriations were made for an Indian police force and a court of Indian offences. Indian schools were to be supported by Federal appropriation and a Superintendent was appointed to oversee them. To encourage agriculture the office of "practical farmer" was created. Then to force the Indians to work it was provided that no able-bodied man between eighteen and forty-five should receive rations free.

Schoolswere started at Pyramid Lake, Wadsworth, Walker River, Fort McDermit and the Western Shoshone Agency. At Pyramid Lake and the Western Shoshone Agency they were boarding schools while the others were day schools. The first few years these schools were experimental; the early reports concerning them are contradictory and unreliable, but with time the schools became a real force in the state.

Friends of the Indians felt that they were being oppressed and given no chance to advance in civilization. The reservation life induced idleness, and vice, keeping alive the old Indian customs and superstitions. The red

man was kept a child and given no chance to grow to manhood. To overcome this false benevolent policy, Congress passed an act in 1884 which allowed an Indian to homestead a quarter section of land and gave him twenty-five years to prove up on it. This step only effected a decreasing number of Indians so to bring all under a law granting them lands, Congress in 1887 passed the Daur Act. By this the President was allowed to allot the lands of a reservation in severalty. After a period of twenty-five years or longer the allottee should receive his land in Every Indian who was given an allottment became a citizen of the United States.

The Indians of Duck Valley were the first to petition for the division of their reserve, but the President took no action on the matter. These Indians had been farming year after year with discouraging results. First the crops were destroyed by grasshoppers, then by tar-weed, then by squirrels and blackbirds. The season wa s short and often the grain was killed by frost or draught. But they kept on working, hoping for a betterment of conditions. Three ditches were dug to irrigate their farms and all arable land brought into cultivation. Alfalfa was introduced and cattle raising increased.

The first allotment in severalty was made to the Stillwater and Fort McDermit Paiutes. Both of these allotments were afterwards relinquished and the land re-allotted

so all could receive irrigated land.

The town of Wadsworth had been built on the southern end of Pyramid Lake reservation without permission from the Indians. The service tried to settle the difficulty and an agreement was reached by which the government should pay the Indians twenty thousand dollars for them to release six miles on the southern end of the reservation. The people of Wadsworth took no steps beyond making a preliminary survey to serve a title to their townsite and townlots. In 1902 the railroad changed its line, leaving the town off the route. The Indian Bureau then dropped the discussion as they believed the population would leave Wadsworth in time.

The Messiah Craze and the Ghost Dance had their origin among the Paiute Indians of Nevada. Wovoka or Jack Wilson born about 1860 was the Messiah and taught the Ghost Dance to the Indians. He lived in Mason Valley above Walker River Reservation. He claimed to hold communion with God and taught the Indians that they should be peaceful and truthful. The craze spread through Nevada and then was carried east beyond the Rocky Mountains. It had but little influence in Nevada. The agent of the Nevada Agency ignored it and at Duck Valley, the superintendent stopped the dancing by refusing rations to those participating.

To reduce the official list in Nevada, the office of agent at Pyramid Lake was discontinued and the superintendent

of the school was given charge of the agency. The same thing happened at the Western Shoshone Agency and at Moapa. This reservation had been slightly enlarged and again placed under charge of an official.

In 1890 a training school was started at Carson City. This soon became the largest and most important Indian school in the state. All the different public school branches and the different industries were taught. It furnished a schooling for the non-reservation children and a higher course for the pupils from the reservation schools. A large number were drawn from Walker River and after that reserve was placed under the control of the superintendent of the Carson school, the pupils from there largely increased.

After Stillwater and Fort McDermit lands were re-allotted the President ordered the Walker River Reservation to be given in sereralty. This was afterwards extended to include enough grazing and timber land for the Indians. Every head of a family received three hundred dollars on agreeing to relinquish the remainder of the reserve. In 1906 President Roosevelt by proclamation, opened the remainder for settlement.

In 1904 Congress provided for the allotment of Pyramid Lake Reservation in tracts of five acres. But as the Indian Bureau felt these to be too small, nothing was done about it.

In the sixty years from 1848 to 1908, the Indians of Nevada had passed from savagry to a questionable civilization.

Reservations had been given them and steps taken to break up the reserves. Some had become citizens of the United States and others were on the way. Schools had been started and most of the younger element had been attending. All spoke English and dressed as the whites. The Federal policy has brought these Indians to a much higher plane and will give them a chance for self development in the future.

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